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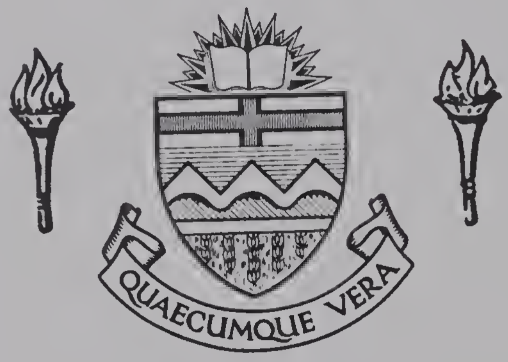

The University of Alberta
Printing Department
Edmonton, Alberta

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

THE EFFECT OF A SIMULATION GAME ON THE ATTITUDE OF POLITICAL EFFICACY OF SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS

BY

© REX WM. VOGEL

A THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

EDMONTON, ALBERTA
FALL, 1970

Thesis
1970F
270

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "The Effect of a Simulation Game on the Attitude of Political Efficacy of Sixth Grade Students" sumbitted by Rex Wm. Vogel in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine empirically the effect of a specific simulation game, City Council: A Simulation Game, on the attitude of political efficacy of sixth grade students in comparison with a conventional strategy of instruction in the social studies.

To secure data ten classes were given instruction in civic government, five of which were taught the unit by a conventional method and five by the simulation game. A pre-test of seven items, to determine each student's attitude of political efficacy immediately prior to the study, was given the class period before the unit began. The same seven-item attitudinal inventory was given as a post-test immediately after the unit was taught to measure change of attitude as a result of the treatment. The difference between group means on gain scores was subjected to t-tests. For each test the level of significance was set at .05.

This study provides statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that City Council: A Simulation Game will be significantly ($p \leq .001$) more effective in changing the attitude of political efficacy of sixth grade students than will a conventional strategy of instruction. The data further suggests that this simulation game is

significantly ($p \leq .05$) more effective than a conventional method in changing the attitude of political efficacy for the following types of students: average age, below average I.Q., average I.Q., middle SES, upper SES and underachievers. The conventional strategy of instruction was not significantly more effective than the simulation game in changing the attitude of political efficacy for any sub-group of students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The successful completion of this study was dependent upon the cooperation and support of a great many people. The writer wishes to express his thanks, first of all, to the chairman of his thesis committee, Professor Charles R. Chamberlin, whose scholarly attention to detail, willing assistance, careful advice, patience and constructive criticism increased the quality of the work as it developed.

The writer also wishes to thank Dr. Edna C. Wilson, Dr. Ted Aoki and Dr. Myer Horowitz for their graciousness in serving on his thesis committee and for their wisdom in counseling him during his academic endeavours.

The writer is indebted to graduate students, Mrs. Marilyn Shortt and Mr. Floyd Wollum for their stimulating and thought-provoking questions.

Thanks are also expressed to Dr. George Cathcart for his suggestions and assistance with the statistical procedure.

The writer further wishes to extend thanks to the Edmonton Public School Board for their cooperation in this study, as well as the principals and grade six teachers of Capilano, Newton, Donnan, King Edward, Gold Bar and Terrace Heights Schools, without whose assistance the study could not have been made.

Most of all, the writer wishes to express his gratitude to his wife Rita and to his two children, Sandra Lynn and Randall Wade, for being so patient and understanding throughout the progress of the study.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND OBJECTIVES

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM

Leon Festinger (1957) has developed a theory of cognitive dissonance which has a number of interesting consequences for attitude change. The cognitive dissonance theory holds that "two elements are in dissonant relation if, considering these two alone, the observe of one element would follow from the other (p. 13)." For example, the belief that citizens have a chance to have a say in the running of the city government and the belief that writing letters to aldermen is a waste of time are in dissonant relation since the obverse of the second belief follows logically from the first. The theory further holds that dissonance being psychologically uncomfortable will motivate the person to try to reduce dissonance and achieve consonance.

According to Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962) the direct applicability of this theory to the phenomenon of attitude change through the role-playing technique is obvious. Through playing a role the individual is led to express outwardly an attitude which may be discrepant from his actual private attitude. For example, an individual may hold the belief that individual political action has

little, if any, impact on the political process. In playing the role of an alderman in a simulation game the participant must take on the attitude consistent with that role, i.e., that individual political action is worthwhile. Thus, a state of dissonance is created in him. One way of reducing this uncomfortable state of dissonance is to shift the attitude privately held to make it correspond more closely with the outward expression. Playing the game, then, may leave permanent effects.

A recent schoolwide project states that one of the most promising "hunches" about simulation games is that they can influence and alter the attitudes of participants (Gordon, 1968, p. 1). In the words of the author of this report, "many games researchers are convinced that the primary value of (simulation) games lies in their ability to improve attitudes (Gordon, 1968, p. 1)." Gordon (1968) goes on to say:

> Specifically, there are three areas to which this hunch applies. First, there is some evidence that games can be used to change attitudes about the particular issue a game treats. Second, and even more encouraging, there are indications that experience with educational games can improve the attitudes of participants toward learning and the school system in general. And third, games appear to have an influence on the student's attitude about his own effectiveness in his own environment (p. 1).

This study examines the third aspect of attitude change, i.e., efficacy, or the sense of being able to control

the world around oneself.

The concept of efficacy is of educational interest in that this attitudinal characteristic has been found to be related to participation and performance in a variety of real-life situations. Sociological studies of political behavior, for example, have shown that the people most likely to take an active part in politics are those with relatively strong feelings of political efficacy -- who feel that their actions (voting, writing letters to politicians, etc.) will have some kind of desirable effect upon their government (Campbell, Gurin and Miller, 1954, pp. 187-194).

Todd (1962) states that if a democratic nation is to survive, its populace must play an active role in the political processes and must have an understanding of the political system and its setting (p. 289). According to Hess and Torney (1967):

> The power to regulate the government - which the child will share as a citizen - is unlike any relationship children experience. The readiness to become actively involved must be developed during childhood by teaching attitudes based on trust in the system .... Trust in the system motivates attempts at influence, assuring that effort will not be futile. Failure of socialization may foster apathy or it may lead to the emergence of influence techniques which are antisocial or illegal (p. 61).

Easton (1957) states that one of the fundamental conditions for the survival of a political system is that the young people must acquire the knowledge, values, norms

and attitudes expected from members of the system. This highly complex process of induction into the political culture may be referred to as "political socialization or politicization (p. 311)." According to Easton and Hess (1962) this process continues throughout the life-time but its imprint is most pronounced during the impressionable formative years of pre-adolescence.

Apart from these investigations, another study of political socialization theory has stressed:

> ... that adult political behavior is little more than an elaboration of patterns rooted in childhood experiences. It is assumed that early political socialization is more 'basic' than later learning experiences and that patterns formed as a result of childhood socialization can be dislodged only under unusual circumstances (Prewitt, Eulau and Zisk, 1966, p. 569).

According to Sigel (1965), "The time has come, it seems, when we need no longer be content to say political norms (e.g., political efficacy) are learned (p. 128)."

It appears, then, that it is important to employ strategies to develop political norms such as political efficacy. If this is the case, then, we need to be concerned about finding effective ways to achieve this objective.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The purpose of this study is to determine empirically the effect of a specific simulation game, City Council:

A Simulation Game, on the attitude of political efficacy of sixth grade students in comparison with a conventional strategy of instruction in the social studies.

III. DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

The statement of the problem includes two modes of the independent variable instruction, simulation game and conventional strategy of instruction, and one dependent variable, attitude of political efficacy. These key terms of the problem together with others pertinent to the study are defined in the following manner:

Simulation game. An operating but simplified representation (model) of some system or process in which there are human participants (players), payoffs assigned to outcomes (objectives) and constraints under which play takes place (rules).

City Council: A Simulation Game. The name given to the simulation game developed by this researcher based on James S. Coleman's model of the congressional system in American Government. City Council: A Simulation Game is a set of five simulation games, each simulation game teaching some aspect of the legislative process (see Appendix A).

Conventional strategy of instruction (traditional method of teaching). New information is given to the students by duplicated materials, films and film strips and is followed by a class discussion.

Attitudes. Orientations toward others and toward objects. They reflect a disposition to an activity. Attitudes are selective. They provide a basis for discrimination between alternative courses of action and introduce consistency of response in social situations of an otherwise diverse nature (Stern, 1963, p. 404).

Attitude of political efficacy. "The feeling that individual political action does have, or can have, an impact upon the political process, i.e., that it is worthwhile to perform one's civic duties. It is the feeling that political and social change is possible, that the individual citizen can play a part in bringing about this change (Campbell, Gurin and Miller, 1954, p. 187)."

Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey. A survey constructed by the researcher to measure the attitude of political efficacy of elementary school children to civic government.

Age. The subject's chronological age in months to the nearest month as of May 1, 1970.

Older than average age. Sub-group of students whose ages ranged from 145 months to 168 months.

Average age. Sub-group of students whose ages ranged from 138 months to 144 months.

Younger than average age. Sub-group of students whose ages ranged from 118 months to 137 months.

I.Q. The subject's scores on the Lorge-Thorndike

Verbal Intelligence Test, Level 3, Form A (1957).

Low I.Q. Sub-group of students whose I.Q. scores ranged from 58 to 80.

Average I.Q. Sub-group of students whose I.Q. scores ranged from 81 to 114.

High I.Q. Sub-group of students whose I.Q. scores ranged from 115 to 160.

Social Economic Status (SES). A numerical rating assigned to each subject, calculated from the Canadian Occupation Scale of Blishen (1967).

Low SES. Sub-group of students whose scores on the Blishen scale ranged from 25.00 to 34.91.

Average SES. Sub-group of students whose scores on the Blishen scale ranged from 34.92 to 49.18.

High SES. Sub-group of students whose scores on the Blishen scale ranged from 49.19 to 76.01.

Underachievers. Those students who were perceived by their classroom teacher to be poor classroom performers and who were perceived to be achieving below their potential.

Superior Students. Those students categorized as 5/5 students, i.e., students in the fifth year of the five year elementary school program, in the Edmonton Public School System's Continuous Progress Plan.

IV. OBJECTIVES

A previous study by Easton and Dennis (1967) examined

the relationship between sex, age, I.Q. and SES and a sense of political efficacy. However, this study did not deal with change of the attitude of political efficacy and thus did not recommend a mode of instruction that would be effective in developing in the student a high feeling of political efficacy. The objectives of this study, then, are to examine differentiated modes of instruction used to effect change in the attitude of political efficacy and to determine the relationship, if any, between the selected variables and the two strategies of instruction.

The theoretical assumptions and research findings underlying this study led to the formulation of the following major hypothesis:

H - 1 If the change in the attitude of political efficacy of students receiving instruction in a simulation game and those receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction is compared, then there will be a significant difference between the instruction groups in favor of the former.

Because of lack of theoretical or research bases, the following relationships were posed in the form of questions:

Q - 1 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between boys receiving instruction in the simulation game and

boys receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 2 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between girls receiving instruction in the simulation game and girls receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 3 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between older than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and older than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 4 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average age students receiving instruction in a conventional stragegy of instruction?

Q - 5 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between younger than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and younger than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 6 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high I.Q.

students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 7 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 8 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and low I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q - 9 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high SES students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q -10 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average SES students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q -11 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game

and low SES students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q -12 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between superior students receiving instruction in the simulation game and superior students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction?

Q -13 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between underachieving students receiving instruction in the simulation game and underachieving students receiving instruction in the conventional strategy of instruction?

Q -14 Is there any significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between students who are chairmen in the simulation game and all other students in the simulation game?

V. ASSUMPTIONS MADE IN THE STUDY

In order to proceed with the study and to interpret and draw conclusions from the resulting data, it was necessary to proceed on the following assumptions:

(1) The attitude of political efficacy can be measured.

(2) The Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey used in this study is an acceptable measure of the

sense of political efficacy in sixth grade students.

(3) The instrument items were similarly understood by all students.

(4) Responses to each item of the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey, upon which the findings of this study are based, represented the respondents' true feelings.

(5) I.Q. scores obtained on the verbal battery of the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests are valid indicators of intelligence.

(6) The ability and efficiency of teacher personnel was fairly equal throughout.

(7) The specified treatments caused the differences, if any, in change of the attitude of political efficacy.

VI. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The validity of the findings of this study is limited in the following ways:

(1) Administration of the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey was carried out by the individual teachers in the classrooms concerned. The investigator did attempt to control the teacher variable factor as much as possible by preparing directions for use with the attitude survey. However, it is impossible to ensure that conditions were identical for all students.

(2) Some occupational titles listed for the sample

were not included on the Canadian Occupation Scale of Blishen (1967), so estimates had to be made. It is acknowledged that there likely exist differences in home background unaccounted for by this measure of socio-economic status.

VII. SUMMARY

This chapter includes an introduction and background to the problem, the statement of the problem for investigation, definition of terms, the hypothesis and questions that constituted the objectives of the study, assumptions made in this investigation and the limitations of the study.

The remainder of the report is presented in the following chapters:

Chapter II	-	Review of Related Literature and Research
Chapter III	-	Procedure
Chapter IV	-	Results of the Investigation
Chapter V	-	Summary of the Study, Conclusions, Recommendations for Future Research and Implications for Curriculum and Instruction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE AND RESEARCH

In this chapter research reports related to this study and theoretical formulations found in the literature are considered under the following headings:

(1) Literature and Research on Political Efficacy
(2) Theoretical Framework
(3) Recent Research on Simulation Games
(4) Summary

I. LITERATURE AND RESEARCH ON POLITICAL EFFICACY

Political scientists have used several means to guage positive attitudes which individuals hold toward politics. In recent years, instruments have been developed to measure one such political attitude: sense of political efficacy. The literature discussed in the following pages deals with studies based on this political attitude.

Persons who think or believe that individual political activities are worthwhile, and that they are capable of accomplishing things through political processes can be said to have a positive attitude toward politics called political efficacy. In order to explore the origins and the development of political efficacy, David Easton and Jack Dennis (1967) administered a questionnaire to a group of 12,052 public school children. This group was selected

include only white children, seven to thirteen years of age, from both middle class and working class families, and taken from eight large metropolitan areas distributed equally in each of the four major regions of the United States. Their research revealed that an unexpectedly wide range of attitudes about aspects of political life are acquired by children in a gradual, developmental fashion. Easton and Dennis (1967) found that, by grade three, the children had already begun to form a sense of political efficacy and that, by grade eight, 83 per cent of them felt moderately or highly politically efficacious. The data further suggested a fairly constant correlation between political efficacy and I.Q. over the grades, particularly from grade five onwards. Easton and Dennis concluded, "The child who has greater intellectual abilities -- as measured by I.Q. tests -- is more likely to acquire the norm early and maintain thereafter a positive feeling toward it (p. 34)." Socio-economic status of students also displayed a similar but weaker relation to the sense of political efficacy. "The child higher on the social ladder is at every grade level likely to be a step or two higher in relative sense to political efficacy (p. 35)." Easton and Dennis failed to observe any marked and consistent difference in feelings of political efficacy between boys and girls over the grades. The data did show, however, a slight advantage for boys in grades three to seven, but this was

reversed in grade eight (pp. 25-38).

Angus Campbell, Gerald Gurin and Warren Miller (1954) made a nation-wide survey of voting behavior in the 1952 presidential election in the United States. Campbell and his associates state that although the level of citizen interest and participation in any one election may be explained in terms of such factors as the attractiveness of the candidates and the importance of the election issues, an understanding of long range trends in level of electoral participation requires the consideration of broader and more enduring political issues and attitudes. To measure attitudes, they developed the concept of "sense of political efficacy", and then proceeded to make a scale that would measure it. Their concept of "sense of political efficacy" was related to a feeling that one's actions as an individual are worthwhile and can result in desired improvement in the political situation (p. 187).

Their hypothesis that political participation is positively related to sense of political efficacy was upheld by the data collected. The study indicated that the higher an individual's sense of political efficacy, the higher the level of participation in the 1952 United States presidential campaign and election. As they expected, Campbell and his associates (1954) found that socio-economic status is highly related to the political efficacy scale. Furthermore, they discovered that men felt somewhat more

efficacious than women. The data also showed that Negroes and non-city dwellers were less likely to feel politically effective than Whites and city dwellers. Persons residing in the American South ranked significantly lower in a sense of political efficacy than persons living in other regions of the United States. Finally, no consistent relationship between age and a sense of political efficacy was found in this study (pp. 187-194).

In his study, Benoit (1967) found that high school students have a greater tendency to feel politically efficacious if they are female, younger than the grade average, have well educated parents, enjoy an above average socio-economic status, participate in organizations outside of school and hold an executive position in student government.

Indications that students may acquire a greater feeling of efficacy or a sense of being able to understand and control a social situation as a result of participating in a simulation of it have been evident from the very first tests of the simulation games developed by researchers at the Department of Social Relations, The Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore (the Hopkins Group), although this kind of effect does not seem to have been studied by other researchers.

Students who played early versions of the Life Career, a simulation designed to teach factors which affect a person's

success in his job, marriage, leisure and education, sometimes reported that they now felt more confident in their ability to make plans for their future lives (Boocock, 1967). For example, one reaction of girls to this simulation game has been a realization that they could do more with their own lives than they had previously thought possible. One girl who played the Life Career Game in a Florida high school wrote:

> I think many girls would be happy to learn of all the things they can do besides being wives and mothers. Many girls who might have been resigned to being a housewife could see that if a girl in the game could get a successful job, so could they (Boocock and Coleman, 1966, p. 232).

This feeling of greater control of one's environment is a result found in other Hopkins' simulation games as well. After playing the Community Disaster Game, players tend to express greater confidence both in the efficacy of community prepardness and in their ability to act intelligently in a real-life disaster situation (Boocock, 1966, pp. 154, 155).

And after playing the Legislative Game, students were more likely to disagree with the statement that "People like me don't have any say about what the government does", while this was not true of the control group who played another simulation game. Other questionnaire items asked respondents to what extent they felt that they could either understand politics and government or take

some meaningful political actions. These showed trends toward greater feelings of political efficacy at the end of the simulation game (Boocock, 1966, pp. 145-149).

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

What are simulation games and how is this technique currently being applied in the area of social studies? A seemingly simple question as "What is a simulation game?" is likely to evoke a variety of different and sometimes contradictory answers. At the present time there is considerable debate over the proper use of the terms, "simulation" and "games". Although a number of writers use the two terms interchangeably, this investigator is convinced that an understanding of the nature of City Council: A Simulation Game and other "educational games" such as those developed at Western Behavioral Sciences Institute and by the Hopkins Group requires thinking of them as two separate techniques. These two techniques and the way in which simulation games combine the two are diagrammed in Figure 1. Thus, this researcher, taking the form suggested in the first issue of the Foreign Policy Association's New Dimensions Series entitled "Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom (1969)," will use the two terms in combination with each other.

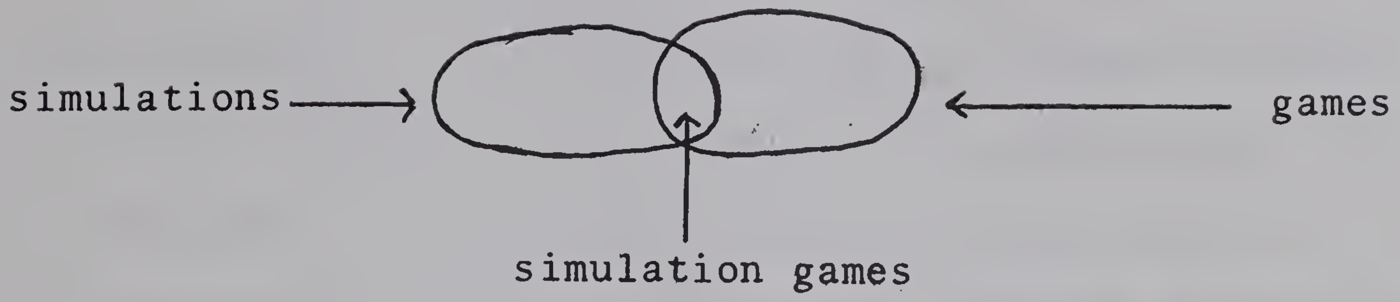

FIGURE 1

SIMULATIONS, GAMES AND THEIR COMBINATION

All simulation games combine the properties of games in general with the properties of simulations in general. Webster's Dictionary (1964) defines a game as

> ... a physical or mental competition conducted according to rules in which the participants play in direct opposition to each other, each side striving to win and to keep the other side from doing so (p. 933).

Thus a game can be thought of as a contest or competition. According to Coleman (1967) the essential properties of a game are as follows:

> 1. Its basic elements are players or actors, each striving to achieve his goal; 2. it is limited to a small, fixed set of players; 3. its rules limit the range and define the nature of legitimate actions of the players; 4. again, through the rules, it establishes the basic order, sequence, and structure within which the action takes place; 5. it is delimited in time as well as extensivity, with an end defined by the rules; and 6. its rules constitute a temporary suspension of some of the ordinary activities of life and rules of behavior by substituting for themthese special time-and-space delimited ones (p. 67).

According to Cherryholmes (1968) "a game becomes a simulation when it attempts to model a referent system (p. 176)." However, not all games are simulations. It is difficult to imagine what theoretical process or system is being represented when the Edmonton Eskimos play the Calgary Stampeders.

There are also many "educational games" which are not simulations (e.g., the Propaganda Game, Euro-Card, Laymen Allen's Wff'n Proof, Real Number Game, On Sets, Equation Game and other mathematical games). No role is played and no vicarious experience is obtained from them. Allen (1963) has described the games that concern themselves with mathematics or logic as autotelic games. Allen says that they

> ... help to develop a favorable attitude among learners toward symbol-manipulating activities, provide practice in abstract thinking, and teach something about mathematical logic (p. 8).

Allen also says that they were designed to be fun and an activity that learners would voluntarily spend time doing for its own sake. This is his definition of autotelic.

Nor are all simulations games. A wind tunnel experiment simulating the performance of a racing car design does not constitute a game. Neither does medical doctors simulating diseases with computer-manipulated variables to isolate causes and hopefully find cures. There is no element of competition with the Link Trainer (the simulated

cockpit of an aircraft, in which many pilots of the Air Force learned to fly during the second world war), with the mammoth flight simulator for the Boeing 727 or with the simulations that N.A.S.A. has been using to prepare the astronauts for the kind of conditions they will encounter in space flights. Other simulations such as flow charts, weather maps and wiring diagrams which are representational depictions of real life processes or conditions have no element of competition in them at all.

Not only are not all simulations designed for teaching purposes, but not even all teaching simulations are games. For example, young children are sometimes taught how community institutions operate through such activities as running a school store or role playing a community situation.

The term "simulation" has been used in a variety of different, yet closely related senses. According to Webster's Dictionary (1964) simulation is the act or process of imitating, of assuming the appearance or effect of something (p. 2122). In popular usage, simulation is often a fancy term for an imitation for something that is false or "phony", a copy of something but not the real thing. Simulation may also mean that one thing is much like another, that it reproduces the characteristics of something else in certain important respects, but is otherwise different. Thus margarine may be thought of as a

simulation of butter. In this case there is not necessarily any intent to deceive. There is an attempt simply to provide a functional substitute for something else. Though the uproar about coloring margarine yellow, stirred up by the dairy industry, suggests that some people were worried about deception.

Before it is possible to understand just how social scientists and theorists in education use the term "simulation", it is necessary to grasp the exact sense in which they use the word.

According to Raser (1969a) simulations are attempts by theorists to construct and manipulate operating complex social and physical systems (p. x). Simulations, broadly defined, are condensed representations or simplified models of real world processes or systems (Dawson, 1963, pp. 1-3). Simulations are dynamic or operating models (Verba, 1963, pp. 490-519). Kinley (1966) defines a model as a simplified representation of a process and a simulation as the exercise of the operation of that model.

According to the Foreign Policy Association (1969) when used in the context of simulation the word "model" means two things. Firstly, model means that the reality which is being represented is reduced in size until it reaches manageable proportions. Secondly, only certain aspects of reality are included in the model. This researcher's model of city government, for example, ignores

the influence of an alderman's personality and hand-shaking ability as factors in his getting re-elected to Council. Stated another way, "a simulation is a selective representation of reality, containing only those elements of reality that the designer deems relevant to his purpose (Foreign Policy Association, 1969, p. 4). In this researcher's model of civic government not every facet of the legislative process is represented. If this were possible, the resulting model would be far too complex for educational purposes, especially at the elementary level. Instead, this researcher chose to single out for emphasis certain select influences that play an important role in government decision-making at the local level.

The selectivity and simplification involved in building the model on which a simulation is based can be diagrammed. If we can describe reality in terms of 49 variables, as shown in Figure 2, then, for the purpose of teaching about this reality in a meaningful way, we may need to use only, let us say five.

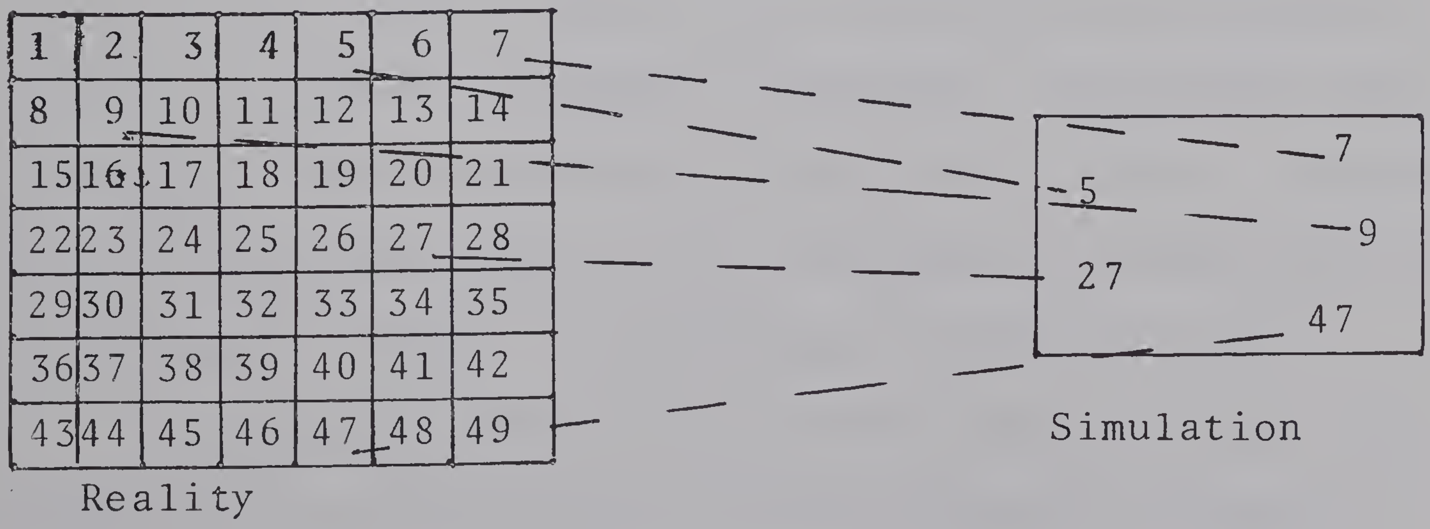

FIGURE 2

CONSTRUCTION OF MODEL ON WHICH A SIMULATION IS BASED

Thus a simulation game is based on a model, which is a collection of assertions about some reality -- past, present or predicted (Brody, 1963, p. 191). To build a model, then, the researcher must abstract from reality those components and relationships that are considered crucial to what is being modeled. In the end, model-builders hope their creations resemble the reality they represent.

In every simulation game all players have goals and the rules specify both what the goals are and how the goals are reached. For example, in City Council: A Simulation Game each student, an elected member of the City Council, is faced with the goal of getting re-elected. Each player is dealt cards which show the preferences of the people in his ward on certain issues. He then works for or against these issuesin the Council. He is re-elected or not according to the number of satisfied or dissatisfied people in his ward as a result of his voting record.

Thus, a simulation game may be defined as an operating but simplified representation (model) of some system or process in which there are human participants (players), payoffs assigned to outcomes (objectives) and constraints under which play takes place (rules). Basically, then, a simulation game is the building of a model and having participants operate it according to selected rules.

Simulation games in the social studies place the student in a role-playing situation where he assumes a

decision-making role and where he must follow procedures and rules to achieve specific objectives. Simulation games, as defined above, thus differ in certain important respects from role-playing as normally used in the social studies. A simulation game is an operating model of a system or process, whereas role playing is a description of an activity. As a rule, in role-playing a student is placed in a static situation and is expected to elaborate a single response to this situation. A simulation game, on the other hand, is more highly structured than is role-playing activity. In a simulation game the individual is placed in a situation that is changing and where he is called upon to make a series of cumulative decisions, each based upon the outcome of the previous decision(s). Thus in a simulation game a student cannot adopt a single mind set and adhere to it but must adapt to changing circumstances.

Simulation games incorporate any technique which places the learner in a social environment and requires him to respond to the procedures and rules of the game. By doing so the learner discovers for himself the results of his actions and is led to conceptualize about practical consequences of courses of action (Hogan, 1968, p. 242). In short, a simulation game is a learning device which by creating a situation directly analogous to some phase of the real world, attempts to make the student a participant rather than an observer in the decision-making process

(Sleeper, 1968, p. 261).

III. RECENT RESEARCH ON SIMULATION GAMES

According to Chaplin (1968) "little research has been completed in this relatively new field (p. 803)." Boocock (1966) says that "In spite of the ever increasing proliferation and diffusion of educational games, there has been little rigorous evaluation of their worth as teaching tools (p. v)."

The most comprehensive review of the effectiveness of simulation games is that of Cleo Cherryholmes, a political scientist at Michigan State University, who said that his findings were disappointing. In his review of six research reports on the effectiveness of simulation games, Cherryholmes (1966) concluded they do create more student motivation and interest. However, he concludes that there is no substantial evidence that simulation games are any more effective than any other strategy of instruction in the amount of learning engendered, the facts and principles retained, the critical thinking and problem solving skills gained and the attitudinal change effected. Cherryholmes (1966) says, "Students in simulation acquire realistic attitudes about the referent system, but so do some students using more conventional materials (p. 6)."

Cherryholmes (1963), Garvey and Seiler (1966) and Boocock (1963, 1966) have studied attitudinal change.

Cherryholmes (1963) conducted a tentative and preliminary evaluation of simulation in teaching international relations to high school students. Students in several college prepatory courses in American government participated in the Inter-Nation Simulation (INS) during regular class time for a two-week period, filling out questionnaires before and after the simulation game. A few were also interviewed. The questions included several "testimonial" type questions and some attitude and information scales. One finding indicated that simulation games tend to alter attitudes about international relations to a significant degree. However, since this study has a total absence of control, as Figure 3 shows, it is of no scientific value. According to Campbell and Stanley (1963)

> Basic to scientific evidence ... is the process of comparison of recording differences or of contrast. Any appearance of absolute knowledge or intrinsic knowledge about singular isolated objects, is found to be illusory upon analysis. Securing scientific evidence involves making at least one comparison (p. 6).

	before	treatment	after
Experimental Group	test 1	INS	test 2

FIGURE 3

DESIGN FOR TEST OF INS (CHERRYHOLMES)

Garvey and Seiler (1966) used a modified version of the same attitude instrument with a control group and did not find that a pattern of attitudinal change distinguished the experimental simulation group from the control group. The design of this study is shown in Figure 4.

	before	treatment	after
Experimental Group	test 1	INS	test 2
Control Group	test 1	regular unit on international relations	test 2

FIGURE 4

DESIGN FOR TEST OF INS (GARVEY AND SEILER)

The first experiment carried out by the Hopkins Group was the 1963 test of the Election Campaign Game. Two different Baltimore schools were used. In School A the simulation game was introduced in one high ability and one low average ability sophomore class, with a control group (matched for ability level) for each. In School B, the simulation game was introduced in one high and one low average ability senior class, but there were no control groups. The design of this study is shown in Figure 5. The experimental variable (the simulation game) was given

to experimental but not control groups. There was no attempt to teach the content of the simulation game in some other way to the control groups or to give them any other kind of special attention other than the questionnaire.

	before	treatment	after
Experimental Groups: School A-2 sophomore classes School B-2 senior classes	test 1	election campaign game	test 2a test 2b
Control Groups: School A-2 sophomore classes	test 1	regular class	test 2a

FIGURE 5

DESIGN FOR TEST OF ELECTION CAMPAIGN GAME

Boocock (1963) reports that playing the Election Campaign Game produced realistic attitudes about politics. After the simulation game, participants, when compared with students in the control group, were less likely to "expect our representatives to vote according to their convictions (p. 33)" and more likely to say that "the best way to win elections is to study the voters and then take stands on issues that will be consistent with the voters' opinions (p. 33)."

According to Boocock (1966) a more rigorous evaluation was attempted in connection with the national 4-H conference at Berkeley, California, in 1964 (see Figure

6). The sample of 1200 young people, ranging in age from thirteen to twenty, was randomly assigned to one or the other of two simulation games. Using a list of conference delegates and a random number table, individual names were drawn and assigned alternately to one or the other simulation game. All participants filled out identical questionnaires before and after the simulation game, with some additional questions afterwards pertaining to the particular simulation game they had just played. Each group, then, acted as a control for the other, since each had the experience of one of the simulation games but not the other. Since everyone was subject to the "novelty" of a simulation game, questionnaire responses which change in the experimental group and either do not change or change in a different direction in the control group could be postulated as effects of that particular simulation game. This design, however, does not allow measurement of the effectiveness of a simulation game as a strategy of instruction as opposed to some conventional strategy of instruction, since both experimental and control groups were exposed to a simulation game.

	before	treatment	after
Experimental Group	test 1	legislative game	test 2 test 2a
Control Group	test 1	career game	test 2 test 2b

FIGURE 6

DESIGN FOR TEST OF THE LEGISLATIVE GAME

Another variable not controlled in this study is the type of student who participated in the simulation games. These young people were clearly not a representative sample of American students. Over eighty per cent said they were in the top half of their high school classes academically.

A more serious weakness of the study which does not show in Figure 6, is that the simulation games were played for a single session, lasting only half a day, with the questionnaires administered only a few days apart. Thus the minimum effect of the simulation games would be expected, plus a high likelihood of a test effect of the first questionnaire on the second.

Reporting the results of this experiment, Boocock (1966) says that participants tended to gain from the Legislative Game a more realistic view of the pressures on legislators that prevent their acting solely on "principle". Perhaps more important, the "game data revealed a trend toward greater feelings of political efficacy (p. 16)" on the part of the players after the exercise. She further says, "The actual changes were not large, but in view of the short-term use of the game it seems a potentially important trend (p. 16)."

Mrs. Kaplan Gordon (1968) says:

> Of all the aspects of educational games, ... (the) effect of attitudes is the most elusive. Measuring changes in attitudes is immensely difficult in any area. It is not surprising that from the little research that

> has been done about (simulation) games and attitudes, results have generally been inconclusive at best. Yet, despite few and sometimes discouraging attitudinal tests, many games researchers are convinced that the primary value of games lies in their ability to improve attitudes (p. 1).

IV. SUMMARY

From the preceeding review of attempts to evaluate simulation games as a strategy of instruction in the social studies, one conclusion emerges: There is almost complete lack of empirical evidence that simulation games are any more effective in effecting attitudinal change than any other conventional method. The tentative nature of these research studies indicate the need for further investigation into the effects of simulation games. None of the studies investigated attitudinal change in students in the area of Canadian politics. Thus, this study is designed to determine empirically whether a specific simulation game, City Council: A Simulation Game, contributes significantly to change in the attitude of political efficacy in sixth grade students.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURE

I. OVERVIEW

The main problem was to investigate, by experimental means, the question: Do differences in the method of teaching civic government have any statistically significant effect on the change in the attitude of political efficacy?

To secure data relating to the above stated problem, 10 classes received instruction in civic government, five of which were taught the unit by the conventional method and five by a simulation game. A pre-test of seven items, to determine each student's attitude of political efficacy immediately prior to the study, was given the class period before the unit began. The same seven-item attitudinal inventory was given as a post-test immediately after the unit was taught to measure change of attitude as a result of the treatment. All 10 classes were taught by the regular classroom teacher.

This chapter contains description of the design of the experiment, a description of the instrumentation and means used to clssify students and a discussion of the teachers' materials, methodological considerations and statistical procedures used to analyze the data of the study.

II. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

The hypothesis and questions of the study suggested a need to test for differences in gain scores on the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey between categories of the independent variable, instruction. They further called for testing for differences in gain scores between certain sub-groups, e.g., between low I.Q. students in the experimental group and low I.Q. students in the control group. The dependent variable was change in the attitude of political efficacy in which the measures used were scores on the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey.

The study was carried out according to the design shown in Figure 7. As Figure 7 indicates, data were collected on the first and last days of the study. In the study, as shown in Figure 7, the experimental group is compared before and after treatment with the control group. Thus if the result of test 2 minus the result of test 1 for the experimental group is different from the result of test 2 minus the result of test 1 for the control group, it is assumed that this is due to the treatment.

	before	treatment	after
Experimental Group: 139 students	test 1	simulation game	test 2
Control Group: 135 students	test 1	unit study	test 2

FIGURE 7

DESIGN OF STUDY

The Sample

Two important considerations determined the choice of the sample. Since the samples in many previous simulation games studies, e.g., Career, Legislative and Disaster Games, were heavily weighted toward players of above average intelligence, this researcher attempted to obtain data from a far greater cross-section of students. In order to try out the simulation game with as many different types of groups of students as possible, schools from different areas of the City of Edmonton were chosen.

Another important consideration in choosing the schools for the study was to involve teachers who would take an interest in the study.

Four participating schools were selected following consultation with a number of principals and teachers of the Edmonton Public School System. Of the 274 students in the study, 139 were in the experimental group and 135 were in the control group. Subjects who were not present for one or more tests were dropped from the sample and were

not included for the analysis of test results.

Length of the Experiment

The experiment took place in a period of 16 teaching days in May and June, 1970. Both experimental and control groups received instruction for the same length of time. The 16 days included the days spent in testing before the unit was taught and after it was completed. The students were not told at the beginning of the unit that a post-test would be given in three weeks.

Due to the use of films, filmstrips and transparencies which were made available in single copies to the researcher by the National Film Board of Canada and the Curriculum Lab at the University of Alberta, this period of 16 teaching days had to be staggered. At Donnan School the study took place from May 8 to June 1, at King Edward School from May 11 to June 2, at Gold Bar School from May 13 to June 3 and at Terrace Heights School the study ran from May 13 to June 4. It should be noted, however, that in each school there was simultaneity of experimental and control sessions.

III. INSTRUMENTATION

Since, at the time of the investigation, the researcher was aware of no published scale of political efficacy available that measured the attitude of political efficacy of elementary school children to city government, it was decided to build a test of political efficacy, referred to herein as

the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey.

The Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey, then, is a test constructed by the researcher to test the hypothesis and questions of this study.

A sense of political efficacy has been defined as:

> ... the feeling that individual political action does have, or can have, an impact upon the political process, i.e., that it is worthwhile to perform one's civic duties. It is the feeling that political and social change is possible, and that the individual citizen can play a part in bringing about this change (Campbell, Gurin and Miller, 1954, p. 187).

Measures of the attitude of political efficacy selected were adapted from the Angus Campbell, Gerald Gruin and Warren Miller Sense of Political Efficacy Scale (1954, pp. 187, 188), David Easton and Jack Dennis' eight-item political efficacy scale (1967, p. 29) and Conde Grondin's seven-item sense of political efficacy scale (1969, pp. 162, 163).

The investigator drafted statements towards which students could express feelings of political efficacy. He endeavoured to keep the language in the statements non-technical and to avoid difficult vocabulary words.

This first draft contained 18 items which the investigator considered to be appropriate for inclusion in the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey. Copies of the first draft were circulated to staff members of the Departments of Political Science, Educational

Psychology, Elementary Education and Secondary Education at the University of Alberta. Critical appraisal of the items was invited from them. On the basis of comments received and of the assistance provided by Conde R. Grondin, a doctoral candidate in political science at the University of Alberta, over half the items were considered inappropriate and were deleted, many of the items were strengthened by rephrasing and several new items were added prior to the pilot study.

In attempting to measure some of the components of political efficacy, the following seven items were included in the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey:

1. People say that there are many ways that they can have a say about how the city government runs things but really the only way is by voting.

2. I can't understand what goes on in the city government.

3. What happens in the city government will happen no matter what people do. It is like the weather, there is nothing people can do about it.

4. There are some big powerful men in the city government who are running the whole thing and they do not care about us ordinary people.

5. My family doesn't have any say about what the city government does.

6. I don't think people in the city government care

much what people like my family think.

7. Citizens don't have a chance to say what they think about running the city government.

In addition, during the development of the attitude survey, consideration was given to the selection of a response scale. As a result of the following considerations the summated rating scale, also known as the Likert-type scale (Kerlinger, 1967, pp. 484, 485), was decided upon. The investigator assumed that subjects' past experiences would not in all cases result in feelings of acceptance or rejection toward each item in the survey. The response of "no opinion" was therefore included in the scale. The researcher further wished that these feelings of acceptance or rejection be expressed quantitatively, that is mildly or strongly. Accordingly, a five-point response scale -- strongly agree (1), agree (2), no opinion (3), disagree (4), strongly disagree (5) -- was provided for respondents to indicate their feelings of political efficacy on each item in order that each individual could be placed somewhere on an agreement-disagreement continuum of the attitude of political efficacy. Before scoring the attitude survey, the values in parentheses were assigned to the responses indicated.

The attitude survey was scored by summing the response scale scores for the seven items to yield an individual's attitude of political efficacy score.

To facilitate scoring the attitude survey, responses of the subject were transferred by the investigator to electrically scored answer sheets and all the scoring was accomplished with the use of an optical scorer.

Validity and Reliability of the Test Instrument

Along with procedures for selecting items to be included in the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey, one of the main problems in constructing an instrument to measure the political attitude involved is the establishment of criteria for judging its adequacy. Two specific criteria were utilized to judge the adequacy of this attitude scale. These are validity and reliability. The following discussion deals with these two criteria.

Validity

The extent to which the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey measured the attitude of political efficacy was established in the following way. Since responsible persons in the field of political behavior have thoroughly studied each item for weaknesses, this investigator has concluded that the instrument has content validity.

Since no other test that measures the attitude of political efficacy toward civic government in elementary school children is known by this investigator to exist, congruent validity which correlates a new test with an existing similar measure, was impossible to establish.

Furthermore, since this investigator is aware of no rational methods other than through the use of a test instrument, such as the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey, of determining whether or not an elementary school child actually feels that people like his parents are able to bring their weight to bear effectively on the political process, concurrent validity, which establishes a relationship between the test and other currently obtainable information about the individual, was also impossible to establish (Thorndike and Hagen, 1955, pp. 114, 115).

Since experts in the field of political behavior have concluded that the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey has admissible content validity and since statistical validities were impossible to establish partly due to the newness of this area of political research, this investigator concluded that this attitude survey had acceptable validity for the purpose for which it had been constructed.

Reliability

The reliability of the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey was obtained through the test-retest method. For this purpose the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey was administered to 52 sixth grade students at Capilano School, Edmonton, Alberta on April 27, 1970. The same instrument was re-administered to

the same sample of individuals under similar conditions seven days later.

The test-retest reliability correlations of the mean raw scores were computed by employing the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient formula.

Table I presents the computed reliability coefficient for the pilot study.

TABLE I

RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT OF PILOT STUDY

School Year	Number of Subjects	Number of Items Correlated	Pre-test Mean Raw Score	Post-test Mean Raw Score	Pearson product-moment Correlation
6	52	7	15.22	15.00	.89

Normally, in attempting to determine the degree of relationship between two variables, it is helpful to think in terms of the variance accounted for rather than in terms of the correlation coefficient itself. For example, our correlation coefficient of .89 indicates that .80 or 80 per cent of the variance of one variable is accounted for by the other. Stated differently one might say that 80 per cent of the variance of the one test is predictable from a knowledge of the other. Therefore, the Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey was considered to have an acceptable level of reliability.

IV. CLASSIFICATION OF STUDENTS

Classification of Age

Data on age was taken from the school records. Age was calculated in months to the nearest month as of May 1, 1970.

For the purpose of testing questions 3, 4 and 5, age in months was divided into three categories -- older than average, average and younger than average. The group classed as average had age ratings of one half a standard deviation above and below the mean age of 141.79 months, i.e., age ratings of 138 to 144 months. Of 250 students considered in testing questions 3, 4 and 5, 31 per cent were classed as older than average, 46 per cent as average and 23 per cent as younger than average.

Measurement and Classification of Intelligence

The I.Q. scores on the verbal section of the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Test, Level 3, Form A (1957) were used as the measure of intelligence. The test manual reports a split-half reliability coefficient of .90. Standard errors of measurement in terms of I.Q. points are given as an additional and highly desirable estimate of the test's reliability. The data presented in the manual show that the standard error on Level 3, Form A, is 4.4 I.Q. points, which is well within a reasonable number of points. Buros (1959) states that the Lorge-Thorndike

manual presents better than ordinary data on validity. According to Buros (1959) this 1957 version of the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests is one of the best group intelligence tests on the market today.

The Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test, Level 3, Form A (1957) was administered to all sixth grade students in the Edmonton Public School System in January, 1970. This score was taken from the cumulative record cards.

For the purpose of testing questions 6, 7 and 8, verbal I.Q. scores were divided into three categories -- high, average and low. The group classed as average had scores of one-half a standard deviation above and below the mean of 98.12, i.e., scores from 81 to 114. Twenty-seven grade five students who had not received the Lorge-Thorndike Verbal Intelligence Test, Level 3, Form A (1957) were dropped from the sample for the analysis of this variable. Of 250 students considered in testing questions 6, 7 and 8, 28 per cent were classed as high, 62 per cent as average and 10 per cent as low verbal I.Q. level.

Measurement and Classification of Socio-Economic Status

Socio-economic status was determined on the basis of the occupation of the supporting member of the family. The occupations were categorized on the basis of Blishen's *Canadian Occupational Scale* (1967) which is based on the

educational requirements of occupations and the average income they provide. The 1967 scale was chosen for use in this investigation since many occupations characteristic of males in today's technologically-oriented labor force were included (Blishen, 1967, p. 12). Elley (1961) found Blishen's scale to function adequately for assessing socio-economic status in the Edmonton area while research has shown occupational classification to be a useful index of social class (Kahl and Davis, 1955). The Blishen scale scores range from 25.36 to 76.69 for a total of 320 occupations. In those cases where the home is supported by Public Welfare the score assigned was 25.00. As Blishen did not include such a category on his scale, this point was based on precedent set by Charette (1968) and Myslicki (1970).

Students provided the data for the classification of socio-economic status by describing their parents' occupation. Typical responses are included below:

> My dad is a mailman. He first sorts out mail and then he goes on his 20 block route. My mother doesn't work.
>
> My father is a grage [sic] mechanic at Woodwards Centeral [sic] grage [sic]. Like he fixes car. My mother works at G.W.G. and she sews.

From this information the researcher categorized each response. For the purpose of testing questions 9, 10 and 11, socio-economic scores were divided into three

categories -- high, average and low. The group classed as average had scores of one half a standard deviation above and below the mean of 42.05, i.e., scores from 34.92 to 49.81. Of 274 students considered in testing questions 9, 10 and 11, 29 per cent were classed as high, 44 per cent as average and 27 per cent as low socio-economic level.

V. TEACHERS' MATERIALS AND LESSONS

Before the study could begin it was necessary to assemble materials and construct lesson plans for classroom teachers.

The Simulation Game

After careful examination of the Game of Democracy developed by James S. Coleman (1969) it was felt by the researcher that Coleman's model for this simulation game -- a model of the congressional system in American government -- could be used to simulate the functioning of civic government in Canada.

Democracy is a composite of eight different games that simulate the legislative process. According to a brochure from the distributers of Democracy (Western Publishing Company, 1969) in playing this simulation game, students gain insight

> ... into the question of how decisions are made, how these decisions are democratic - reflecting the will of the people - and how the individual citizen influences a decision as it is finally made.

In the basic version, players act as elected members of the legislature, giving speeches, bargaining with other players and voting upon a number of issues. The object is to pass those bills which are most important to their constituents and thereby get re-elected.

Variant games explore various legislative processes and simulate the pressures which act upon voters and legislators. For example, in one version the legislator must consider his own beliefs as well as satisfying his constituents' interests. In another, the power of a party leader in aiding re-election is added. In the last version, the legislator is forced to deal with negative public reaction to the high cost of many desirable programs. "By playing these several variations of the simulation game, players learn the complexity of decision-making in a democracy (Western Publishing Company, 1969)."

During February 1970 the investigator consulted with Professor H. W. Cummins and Lorne Yacuk of the Department of Political Science at the University of Alberta about the feasibility of using the Game of Democracy to teach Canadian politics to sixth grade students. Ideas and suggestions of ways to modify the simulation game so that it would be valid for the Canadian situation were discussed. The following is a list of most of the suggestions and ideas discussed at this early stage:

1. Start the simulation game out very simply and

gradually increase its complexity.

2. To realistically simulate Canadian political decision-making, fewer modifications and changes in Coleman's model would be necessary if the game were to simulate government at the local level rather than at the federal or provincial levels.

3. Game 5: The Power of the Floor Leader, Game 6: Passage of a Legislative Program and Game 7: Committee Structure in the Legislature of Coleman's Game of Democracy would not be appropriate for a simulation game on Canadian civic government and should be omitted.

4. Issues of importance to the citizens of Edmonton, e.g., Omniplex, should be substituted for the American-oriented issues, e.g., civil rights.

5. Player's work sheets should be simplified.

6. In Games 2 and 3 of Democracy the 11 role cards for each of six regions representing the United States could be changed to 20 Membership in Organization Cards.

7. A more detailed and complete Teacher's Manual should be developed.

8. A set of instructions for the Chairman would be extremely valuable.

9. In order that the players might have something concrete upon which to base their "convictions" in Simulation Game 4, attempt to obtain a statement of position on issues from Edmonton's mayor and aldermen.

As a result of this initial discussion with members of the political science department and as a result of consultation with members of the Departments of Elementary and Secondary Education, a new version of a game simulating decision-making in a democracy, hereinafter referred to as City Council: A Simulation Game was developed by this investigator.

The first draft was carefully examined by Dr. Ivor Dent, mayor of the City of Edmonton, Mrs. Ivor Dent, Junior High School teacher, Dr. H. W. Cummins, professor of Political Science at the University of Alberta and Mr. Charles R. Chamberlin, professor of Elementary Education at the University of Alberta. The following are some of the written comments generously offered by Mayor Dent:

> Our Mayor and all aldermen must vote on every issue unless they have a personal pecuniary interest.
>
> Tie vote loses.
>
> I like this game (Simulation Game 5: Taxation and Public Expenditure). Is it ever true to life!

These and other suggestions of how to improve the simulation game were incorporated into the second draft of City Council: A Simulation Game.

This version was used in a pilot study in one grade six class at Newton School during the period April 6 through 24, 1970. The purpose of this field study was to ascertain the useability of City Council: A Simulation Game for sixth grade students and to determine what further

modifications and simplifications were necessary.

In order that the investigator obtain the maximum information and ideas about the simulation game during the field test, he assumed complete responsibility for instruction, rather than turn it over to the regular classroom teacher, as was done later in the study. Additional information about City Council: A Simulation Game was obtained through interviews with students who participated in the simulation game and through discussions with the regular classroom teacher, Mr. C. R. Wiese. The following is a discussion of some of the results obtained during the field test.

1. The interviews with the students were not very productive. They wanted to talk about how they, as aldermen, were doing in the game, saying such things as "I have 300 points so far; is anyone else doing that good?" Their comments tended to be general: "I liked the game," "We're learning a lot." However, some things the investigator learned in these interviews, included the following: (a) Some of the slower students felt somewhat frustrated because they could not understand parts of the simulation game, particularly the scoring, with the result that their teammates were doing all the work. (b) Those students interviewed felt that the simulation game was "a lot of fun" and that they were "learning a lot." (c) Several suggestions on how to improve the technical aspects of the

simulation game were offered, such as: (i) "Why don't we use the gymn or a couple of rooms?" (ii) "Why can't we have an immediate vote on the issue and by-pass the discussion and negotiation period if most of us want to?" (iii) "The game would work smoother if the secretary sat beside the chairman." (iv) "We don't need a minute of silent planning." (v) "Making up the agenda order is too complicated!"

These and all other suggestions that were considered valuable were incorporated in the final version.

2. Discussions with the regular classroom teacher revealed a strong liking for the simulation game. He had several suggestions on how to improve the technical quality of the simulation game. Some of the suggestions were: (a) Prepare a list of the materials and equipment needed for each simulation game. (b) Eliminate the row "How I Voted on Issue" on the Player's Work Sheet for all but Simulation Game 4 as it tends to confuse students. (c) Provide for greater flexibility in the length of the Discussion and Negotiation Period. All these suggestions were incorporated in the final version.

At the conclusion of the field study changes and additions were made to the materials. The single most important change was the heavy emphasis placed in the final version of City Council: A Simulation Game on group discussion. As with other simulation games special

importance is placed on what happens after the simulation game. Allan Brown claims that "the whole point of games is to capitalize on the motivation they create. They certainly aren't ends in themselves (Carlson, 1969, p. 108)." "It is hard to over-emphasize the importance of 'de-briefing' of discussion session after the game had been played," says Peter Wolff, editorial director of the Educational Development Center's Social Studies Curriculum Program. "Without such discussions, much of the value of ... (simulation games) will be lost (Carlson, 1969, p. 161)."

However, unlike most other simulation games, City Council: A Simulation Game, which is a series of five simulation games, would not be played completely through in one session and may thus be interrupted throughout for discussion. This is regarded by the researcher as an important aspect of this simulation game since it provides for the sharing of ideas regarding decision-making.

Description of the Simulation Game

City Council: A Simulation Game is designed to show how an alderman works, including how he depends upon the interests of the people in his ward and how he must frequently exchange support with other aldermen.

This simulation game can be played with five to eleven players, each acting as an alderman and collectively acting as the City Council deciding upon a series of eight

civic issues. These issues are: Omniplex (a multi-million dollar sports and convention center), pollution control, public housing, urban renewal, rapid transit, parks and recreation, zoning and annexation. Each player is dealt a set of cards which indicate the attitudes of the people in his ward on various issues. For example, one such card reads: Parks and Recreation -- 70 persons for, 30 persons against. Another reads: Pollution Control -- 50 persons for, 250 persons against. By studying this whole set of cards, a player can tell how his ward feels about the various issues and which issues are most important to them.

After an initial round of short speeches, the simulation game alternatives between (a) informal discussion and negotiation periods of two minutes, when players may contact any other aldermen and try to gain their support on issues of the greatest importance to them, and (b) formal sessions of City Council, during which issues are brought before the Council, players discuss them according to rules of parliamentary procedure and vote. An alderman's success, i.e., whether or not he gets re-elected at the end of the simulation game is determined by his success in getting passed or defeated those issues the people in his ward most want passed or defeated. For further details about the structure and rules of City Council: A Simulation Game, see the teacher's

guide, Appendix A.

The Conventional Strategy of Instruction

According to Boocock (1966):

> An alternative technique both interesting and parallel enough so that the same materials could be taught is not always likely to be available (p. 46).

This researcher failed in his attempt to locate an interesting unit of instruction on Canadian Civic Government that would satisfactorily parallel what is taught in the simulation game developed for this study. Published curriculum materials suitable for classroom use contained nothing that would appear to be as intellectually stimulating as the simulation game. Available studies of government were little more than flowchart descriptions of how a bill becomes law and other legislative activities. This difficulty of procuring a ready-made unit on decision-making at the local government level necessitated the development of a control unit by the researcher.

All known sources, including curriculum guides, method's texts, political science books and children's books on government, were canvassed to provide resource materials around which a control unit could be built. The researcher was greatly assisted in the search for and selection of appropriate materials by professors and graduate students in the Department of Elementary Education at the University of Alberta.

A major part of the information presented in the control unit was derived from individual lessons and series of lessons from such sources as Fenton (1966, pp. 320-330), Sorauf (1965, pp. 84-89), Raths, Harmin and Simon (1966, pp. 100, 105, 232) and Arnspiger, Brill and Rucker (1967, pp. 281-287). In addition to the above, a few other materials were assembled for the teachers. Films, filmstrips and transparencies were used to supplement written materials. This investigator saw to it that the materials were in the schools on the days that they were needed.

The researcher constructed lesson plans for 16 teaching days which would as closely as possible parallel the learning experiences of the experimental group. These individual lesson plans along with all student materials were assembled into teaching guides. A copy of the guide is to be found in Appendix B.

Directions to the Teachers

Two days prior to the administration of the pretest each teacher received student materials and a teacher's guide containing lesson plans and other teaching suggestions prepared by the researcher. On this occasion the researcher conferred with each teacher individually regarding the planned use of the materials and the purpose of the instruction. Teachers were instructed to carefully study the materials and read the teacher's guide. The researcher returned to each school the following day to

further elaborate on the materials in response to teacher queries. Upon completion of the pre-test each classroom began using the materials and continued the project for 16 teaching days.

A few days after the experiment had begun, the researcher visited each school to obtain information about students in the study. Data on sex, age and I.Q. were taken directly from the cumulative records. The initial progress in the study was also discussed at this time.

The researcher returned periodically to deliver and pick up films, filmstrips and transparencies and to answer further queries.

VI. METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This study was guided by one directional hypothesis and 18 questions, which for statistical testing were converted into the following 15 null hypotheses:

NH - 1 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between students receiving instruction in the simulation game and students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 2 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between boys receiving instruction in the simulation game and boys receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 3 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between girls receiving instruction in the simulation game and girls receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 4 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between older than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and older than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 5 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average age students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 6 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between younger than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and younger than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 7 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 8 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH - 9 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and low I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH -10 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high SES students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH -11 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average SES students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH -12 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and low SES students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH -13 There is no significant difference in change in the

attitude of political efficacy between superior students receiving instruction in the simulation game and superior students receiving instruction in a conventional method.

NH -14 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between underachieving students receiving instruction in the simulation game and underachieving students receiving instruction in the conventional method.

NH -15 There is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between students who are chairmen in the simulation game and all other students in the simulation game.

VII. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

In their discussion of "three true, experimental designs," Campbell and Stanley (1963) state that the pre-test and post-test control group design of this study "will also turn out to be the most strongly recommended designs of this presentation (p. 13)." Because the design neatly controls both internal and external factors such as testing, maturation, history, instrumentation, selection, mortality, interaction of selection and maturation, etc., it is held in high regard by these authors (Campbell and Stanley, 1963, pp. 13-22).

When discussing statistical tests of significance

to achieve interpretable comparisons Campbell and Stanley (1963) further comment, "The most widely used acceptable test is to compute a 't' between experimental and control groups on these gain scores (p. 23)." T-tests were run on age, I.Q. and SES to determine if there was a significant difference between the students in the experimental and control groups on these three variables. The results of these three tests (see Table II) and the results of the tests for significant difference between pre-test means of all groups compared (see Tables III to XVII) justify using this statistical test to measure for a significant difference on gain scores.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF T-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AGE IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND AGE IN CONTROL, I.Q. SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND I.Q. SCORES IN CONTROL (C) AND SES SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND SES SCORES IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Significance
	E	C	E	C		
Age	141.41	142.19	6.93	7.44	-0.889	.19
I.Q.	107.98	107.10	13.68	14.32	0.499	.31
SES	41.51	42.61	14.38	14.06	-0.634	.26

For this statistical test on the difference between group means, levels of significance were as follows: If p is less than or equal to .05 ($p \leq .05$) then the difference is significant.

Computational procedures for calculating the difference between group means have been programmed for use with the University of Alberta's computer. Programs were made available to the investigator by personnel of the Division of Educational Research Services, Faculty of Education. Accordingly, statistical analyses were handled by the International Business Machine 360 computer with the use of the suitable program in fortran language at the University of Alberta.

VIII. SUMMARY

In this chapter procedural consideration relevant to this study were reported. The experimental design was first described. A brief description was then given of the sample used. The instrument, Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey, was detailed and supporting evidence as to its validity and reliability was reported. The method that was employed to classify students was then described. This was followed by a description of the differentiated instruction given to the treatment groups of the study. The chapter was concluded by a report on the procedure used to analyze the data. The

following chapter presents results of the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE INVESTIGATION

This chapter presents the findings resulting from the statistical analysis. These findings are presented in the order of the null hypotheses stated in Chapter III. Each of the null hypotheses tested is stated immediately before the presentation of the results of the statistical test.

Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis 1, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between students receiving instruction in the simulation game and students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. A t-test comparing the difference between the gain scores in the two groups revealed a *t* of 3.074 (see Table III). The test indicated that the gain scores of the group receiving instruction in the simulation game as compared to the group receiving instruction in the conventional method varied significantly ($p \leq .001$). Inspection of the gain scores disclosed that this difference was in favor of the simulation game group. Thus Hypothesis 1, that if the change in the attitude of political efficacy of students receiving instruction in the simulation game and those receiving instruction in a conventional

strategy of instruction is compared, then there will be a significant difference between the instruction groups in favor of the former, was upheld as predicted.

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND CONTROL (C) GROUPS

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=139)	C (N=135)	E	C		
Pre-test	21.11	21.41	4.62	4.74	-0.541	.29
Post-test	24.50	23.08	4.86	5.50	2.248	.01
Gain Scores	3.39	1.75	4.45	4.30	3.074	.001

Question 1

Null Hypothesis 2, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between boys receiving instruction in the simulation game and boys receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. As is evident from Table IV, there is a significant difference $(p \leq .01)$ between the means of the two groups. Thus question 1 was answered in the affirmative, that there is a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between boys receiving instruction in the simulation game and boys receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction. Inspection of the change scores indicated that

the difference was in favor of the simulation game group in the positive direction.

TABLE IV

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN BOYS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND BOYS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=66)	C (N=69)	E	C		
Pre-test	21.39	21.81	5.08	4.72	-0.491	.31
Post-test	25.29	23.74	4.71	4.99	1.838	.03
Gain Scores	3.89	1.93	4.05	3.83	2.876	.002

Question 2

Null Hypothesis 3, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between girls receiving instruction in the simulation game and girls receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. According to Table V, the t-test indicates a significant difference ($p \leq .05$) between the means of the two groups, in favor of the girls in the simulation game. Thus, question 2 was answered in the affirmative. A significant difference was demonstrated in change in the attitude of political efficacy between girls receiving instruction in the simulation game and girls receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction.

TABLE V

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN GIRLS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND GIRLS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means E (N=73)	Means C (N-66)	Standard Deviations E	Standard Deviations C	t	Level of Sign.
Pre-test	20.85	21.00	4.15	4.73	-0.199	.42
Post-test	23.78	22.39	4.89	5.92	1.501	.07
Gain Scores	2.93	1.57	4.74	4.74	1.674	.05

Question 3

Null Hypothesis 4, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between older than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and older than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was accepted. The t-test comparing the difference between the gain scores in the two groups reveals a t of 0.926, not significant at the .05 level (see Table VI). Thus question 3 was answered in the negative. No significant difference was demonstrated in change in the attitude of political efficacy between older than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and older than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction.

TABLE VI

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN OLDER THAN AVERAGE AGE STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND OLDER THAN AVERAGE AGE STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=49)	C (N=47)	E	C		
Pre-test	20.14	21.61	4.25	4.92	-1.658	.08
Post-test	23.08	23.69	5.05	5.17	- .770	.22
Gain Scores	2.94	2.09	4.26	4.68	0.926	.18

Question 4

Null Hypothesis 5, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average age students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. As shown in Table VII, the t-test comparing the differences between the gain scores in the two groups indicates a t of 3.847. The test reveals that the gain scores of the average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game as compared to the average age students receiving instruction in the conventional method varied significantly ($p \leq .001$). Inspection of the gain scores discloses that this difference is in favor of the simulation game group. Thus question 4 was answered in the affirmative, that there is a significant difference in change in the attitude of

political efficacy between average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average age students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction.

TABLE VII

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN AVERAGE AGE STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND AVERAGE AGE STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means E (N=59)	Means C (N=54)	Standard Deviations E	Standard Deviations C	t	Level of Sign.
Pre-test	21.25	21.52	4.77	4.59	-0.297	.38
Post-test	25.12	22.28	4.55	5.13	3.090	.001
Gain Scores	3.86	0.76	4.64	3.80	3.847	<.001

Question 5

Null Hypothesis 6, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between younger than average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and younger than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was accepted. The t-test comparing the difference between the gain scores in the two groups reveals a t of 0.619, not significant at the .05 level (see Table VIII). Thus question 5 was answered in the negative. The change in the attitude of political efficacy between younger than

average age students receiving instruction in the simulation game and younger than average age students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction was not significantly different.

TABLE VIII

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN YOUNGER THAN AVERAGE AGE STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND YOUNGER THAN AVERAGE AGE STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means E (N=31)	Means C (N=33)	Standard Deviations E	Standard Deviations C	t	Level of Sign.
Pre-test	22.16	20.79	4.62	4.70	1.160	.13
Post-test	25.39	23.30	4.69	6.37	1.460	.07
Gain Scores	3.23	2.52	4.32	4.70	0.619	.27

Question 6

Null Hypothesis 7, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was accepted. The t-test comparing the difference between the gain scores in the two groups reveals a t of -0.591, not significant at the .05 level (see Table IX). Thus question 6 was answered in the negative. No significant difference was demonstrated in change in the attitude of political efficacy between

high I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction. It is noted, however, that this is the first analysis that reports a difference in the means in favor of the conventional method.

TABLE IX

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN HIGH I.Q. STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND HIGH I.Q. STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=38)	C (N=32)	E	C		
Pre-test	22.24	23.34	4.86	4.61	-0.958	.17
Post-test	25.05	26.84	5.26	5.08	-1.422	.08
Gain Scores	2.82	3.50	4.97	4.50	-0.591	.28

Question 7

Null Hypothesis 8, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. The obtained t value of 3.699 is significant ($p \leq .001$) indicating that the rejection of the null hypothesis was warranted (see Table X). Thus question 7 was answered in the affirmative, that there is a significant difference

in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction. Inspection of the change scores indicated that the difference was in favor of the simulation game group in the positive direction.

TABLE X

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN AVERAGE I.Q. STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND AVERAGE I.Q. STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=77)	C (N=77)	E	C		
Pre-test	20.42	21.30	4.43	4.72	-1.190	.12
Post-test	24.12	22.40	4.96	5.13	2.095	.01
Gain Scores	3.70	1.25	4.40	3.71	3.699	$<.001$

Question 8

Null Hypothesis 9, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low I.Q. students receiving instruction in the simulation game and low I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. The obtained t value of 1.835 was significant ($p \leq .05$) indicating that the rejection of the null hypothesis was warranted (see

Table XI). Thus question 8 was answered in the affirmative, that there is a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low I.Q. students receiving instruction in a simulation game and low I.Q. students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction. Inspection of the change scores indicated that the difference was in favor of the simulation game group in the positive direction.

TABLE XI

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN LOW I.Q. STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND LOW I.Q. STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=9)	C (N=17)	E	C		
Pre-test	18.11	20.53	4.53	4.09	-1.327	.10
Post-test	22.44	21.35	3.53	4.68	0.590	.28
Gain Scores	4.33	0.82	3.20	5.00	1.835	.04

Question 9

Null Hypothesis 10, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high SES students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. According to Table XII, the t-test indicates a significant difference ($p \leq .05$)

between the means of the two groups, in favor of the high SES students in the simulation game. Thus question 9 was answered in the affirmative. A significant difference was demonstrated in change in the attitude of political efficacy between high SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and high SES students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction.

TABLE XII

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN HIGH SES STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND HIGH SES STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=37)	C (N=44)	E	C		
Pre-test	21.86	22.41	4.61	4.46	-0.532	.30
Post-test	25.70	23.86	4.94	5.32	1.582	.05
Gain Scores	3.84	1.72	5.81	3.07	2.050	.02

Question 10

Null Hypothesis 11, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average SES students receiving instruction in a conventional method was rejected. Table XIII indicates a significant difference ($p \leq .05$) between the means of the two groups. Thus question 10 was answered in the affirmative,

that there is a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between average SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and average SES students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction. Inspection of the change scores indicated that the difference was in favor of the simulation game group in the positive direction.

TABLE XIII

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN AVERAGE SES STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND AVERAGE SES IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		_t_	Level of Sign.
	E (N=44)	C (N=30)	E	C		
Pre-test	21.32	21.97	4.56	4.74	-0.583	.28
Post-test	24.66	23.67	4.82	5.56	0.806	.21
Gain Scores	3.34	1.70	3.84	4.58	1.645	.05

Question 11

Null Hypothesis 12, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and low SES students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was accepted. As shown in Table XIV, the t-test revealed a _t_ value of 0.628, not significant at the .05 level. Although this t-test does not

prove to be statistically significant, the difference in the means is in favor of the experimental group. Thus question 11 was answered in the negative. No significant difference was demonstrated in change in the attitude of political efficacy between low SES students receiving instruction in the simulation game and low SES students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction.

TABLE XIV

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN LOW SES STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND LOW SES IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=58)	C (N=61)	E	C		
Pre-test	18.60	20.43	3.56	4.74	-1.185	.13
Post-test	20.80	22.23	4.49	4.14	- .570	.28
Gain Scores	2.20	1.80	4.04	4.86	0.628	.26

Question 12

Null Hypothesis 13, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between superior students receiving instruction in the simulation game and superior students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was accepted. The data in Table XV indicates that in the experimental group the mean gain

score was 2.83; in the control it was 3.63. This difference in the shift of attitude between the two groups is not large enough to be significant at the .05 level, nor does it approach this level. Thus question 12 was answered in the negative. No significant difference was demonstrated in change in the attitude of political efficacy between superior students receiving instruction in the simulation game and superior students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction. It is noted, however, that the difference in the means favors the conventional method.

TABLE XV

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN SUPERIOR STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND SUPERIOR STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means		Standard Deviations		t	Level of Sign.
	E (N=6)	C (N=8)	E	C		
Pre-test	24.83	23.00	4.71	5.68	0.595	.28
Post-test	27.67	26.63	3.77	7.14	0.301	.39
Gain Scores	2.83	3.63	3.02	5.07	-0.314	.38

Question 13

Null Hypothesis 14, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between underachieving students receiving instruction in

the simulation game and underachieving students receiving instruction in a conventional method, was rejected. According to Table XVI, the t-test indicates a significant difference ($p \leq .05$) in favor of the students in the simulation game. Thus question 15 was answered in the affirmative. When the change in the attitude of political efficacy of underachieving students receiving instruction in the simulation game and those underachieving students receiving instruction in a conventional strategy of instruction was compared, it was found that there was a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between the two groups.

TABLE XVI

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN UNDERACHIEVING STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (E) AND UNDERACHIEVING STUDENTS IN CONTROL (C)

	Means E (N-13)	Means C (N=12)	Standard Deviations E	Standard Deviations C	*t*	Level of Sign.
Pre-test	20.54	19.25	3.15	4.99	0.747	.23
Post-test	23.92	20.42	4.84	5.02	1.704	.05
Gain Scores	3.38	1.17	2.70	2.76	1.944	.03

Question 14

Null hypothesis 15, that there is no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy

between students who are chairmen in the simulation game and all other students in the simulation game, was rejected. The obtained t value of 3.654 is significant ($p \leq .001$) indicating that the rejection of the null hypothesis was warranted (see Table XVII). Thus question 18 was answered in the affirmative, that there is a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between students who are chairmen in the simulation game and all other students in the simulation game. Inspection of the change scores indicated that the significance was in favor of the students who were chairmen in the positive direction.

TABLE XVII

SUMMARY OF t-TESTS OF DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCORES IN STUDENTS WHO ARE CHAIRMEN IN EXPERIMENTAL (1) AND ALL OTHER STUDENTS IN EXPERIMENTAL (2)

	Means 1 (N=24)	Means 2 (N=115)	Standard Deviations 1	Standard Deviations 2	t	Level of Sign.
Pre-test	20.25	21.29	5.00	4.52	-0.996	.16
Post-test	26.54	24.07	4.18	4.89	2.291	.01
Gain Scores	6.29	2.78	5.23	4.01	3.654	$<$ .001

The findings show that of the 15 null hypotheses tested, 10 of them, null hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 14 and 15 were rejected and the remaining five, null

hypotheses 4, 6, 7, 12 and 13, were accepted. This fact meant that the major hypothesis postulated for the study, hypothesis 1, was supported and that of the 18 questions put to test, questions 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13 and 14 were answered in the affirmative and the remaining five, questions 3, 5, 6, 11 and 12, were answered in the negative. For a summary of the findings see Table XVIII.

A summary of the report, conclusions of the findings and some recommendations for future research will be found in the final chapter of this report.

TABLE XVIII

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Hypothesis or Question No.	Groups Compared	t	Level of Significance
H-1	Simulation game and conventional	3.074	.001
Q-1	Boys Simulation game & boys conventional	2.876	.002
Q-2	Girls Simulation game & girls conventional	1.674	.05
Q-3	Older than aver. age S. game & older than aver. age conventional	0.926	.18
Q-4	Aver. age. S. game & aver. age. conventional	3.847	< .001
Q-5	Younger than aver. age S. game & younger than aver. age conventional	0.619	.27
Q-6	High I.Q. S. game & high I.Q. conventional	-0.591	.28
Q-7	Aver. I.Q. S. game & aver. I.Q. conventional	3.699	< .001
Q-8	Low I.Q. S. game & low I.Q. conventional	1.835	.04
Q-9	High SES S. game & high SES conventional	2.050	.02
Q-10	Aver. SES S. game & aver. SES conventional	1.645	.05
Q-11	Low SES S. game & low SES conventional	0.628	.26
Q-12	Superior S. game & Superior conventional	-0.314	.38
Q-13	Underachievers S. game & underachievers conventional	1.944	.03
Q-14	Chairmen S. game & all others S. game	3.654	< .001

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

I. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate by experimental means the relationship, if any, between the change of the attitude of political efficacy and differentiated strategies of instruction. In order to test this relationship, one hypothesis and 18 questions were formulated to guide the investigation.

In Chapter II research reports related to the study and theoretical formulations found in the literature were presented.

Chapter III reported the procedural considerations relevant to this study. The sample for this study was 274 sixth grade students in four Edmonton Public Schools. In order to determine statistically the nature of the attitude change of these students a pre- and post-test attitude survey was administered before and after the treatment. Students were requested to reply: strongly agree, agree, no opinion, disagree or strongly disagree, to seven items measuring a sense of political efficacy, thus determining attitudinal change. In all cases instruction was given by the regular classroom teacher. The difference between

group means on gain scores were subjected to t-tests. For each test the level of significance was set at .05.

The one hypothesis formulated was supported. The experimental design permitted the testing of 18 relationships, which, because of lack of theoretical or research bases, were posed in the form of question. Nine of these questions were answered in the affirmative; nine were answered in the negative.

II. CONCLUSIONS

In this section the population referent of the interpretation was a body of sixth grade students in four schools in Edmonton who constituted the subjects of the investigation of this study.

According to the cognitive dissonance theory if an individual plays a role inconsistent with his beliefs, dissonance is created. The individual can theoretically reduce the dissonance by changing his beliefs so as to be more consistent with his behavior. Thus dissonance theory predicts that playing a role will result in attitude change.

The results of this study indicates that the students who played the role of an alderman -- the active participants -- changed their attitude of political efficacy significantly more than those students who received instruction by a conventional method -- the passive participants. This evidence seems to indicate that playing

a role in a simulation game is an extremely powerful attitude change technique. These results are consistent with dissonance theory.

Furthermore, it is reasonable in the context of dissonance theory to assume that the greater the attitude discrepancy behavior the greater the amount of dissonance and consequent attitude change. Further research is needed to establish if this is indeed the case.

Conclusions Relating to Major Hypothesis

The findings relative to Hypothesis 1, that there will be a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between students in the simulation game and students in the conventional method in favor of the simulation game, can be explained by referring to the theoretical conception underlying the major hypothesis of the study. Reference was made to Boocock (1966) who postulated that students would acquire a greater feeling of political efficacy as a result of participating in a political simulation game. Boocock and Coleman (1966) have argued that simulation games are one source of a feeling of personal efficacy. Their reasoning is that simulation games, better than many real-life situations, provide players with clear feedback on the consequences of their decisions.

Conclusions Relating to Low I.Q. and Underachieving Students

Taken together the findings relative to questions 8 and 13 provide a meaningful context for interpretation. Question 8 and 13 were answered in the affirmative, that is, there was a significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between (a) low I.Q. students in the simulation game and low I.Q. students in the conventional method and (b) underachieving students in the simulation game and underachieving students in the conventional method. Empirical clues obtained from field testing of simulation games by researchers of the Hopkins Group suggest that simulation games bring to the fore students who do not excell in traditional class work and standard tests. Analysis of results in this present study indicates that simulation games tend to be an effective tool in effecting attitudinal change as well as content learning with the "weaker" student. In other words, it appears that simulation games are not simply another tool by which the better student can further widen the gap between themselves and other students, whether it be in the area of academic achievement or attitude change.

Conclusions Relating to High I.Q. and Superior Students

Questions 6 and 12 examined change in the attitude of political efficacy of high I.Q. and superior students. Both questions were answered in the negative. That is,

there was no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between (a) high I.Q. students in the simulation game and high I.Q. students in the conventional method, and (b) superior students in the simulation game and superior students in the conventional method.

Boocock (1966) reports that the comparative disorganization of some simulation game sessions bothers some students and as a result affects the amount of attitudinal change. Her research indicates that there is consistently a small group of students who are bored or uncomfortable in simulation games. It may be that the kind of student who is accustomed to excelling in a very structured learning situation, with established procedures to be followed by all students and clearly defined right and wrong results, may be very uncomfortable in a situation in which he must work out his own means of organizing the materials and in which there is likely to be more than one "winning" strategy. Further research is needed to establish if this is indeed the case.

In any case the results of this study seem to indicate that change in the attitude of political efficacy in a simulation game is not directly related to general academic performance.

Conclusions Relating to SES

The findings relative to questions 9, 10 and 11 taken together provide another context for further interpretation. Analysis of results disclosed that whereas there was no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between the low SES sub-group given instruction in the simulation game and the low SES sub-group given instruction in the conventional method, there was, on the other hand, a significant difference in change scores between (a) the average SES sub-groups when given differentiated treatments, and (b) the high SES sub-groups when given differentiated treatments.

Why does the simulation game, when compared with a conventional method of instruction, have a greater impact on the attitude of political efficacy on average and high SES students than on low SES students? A possible explanation is that low SES students are rather insecure and thus feel uncomfortable in a situation that is not clearly structured, so they don't know where they stand. It may be that they do not like the comparative freedom and ambiguousness of a simulation game and thus do not shift their attitudes to a significant degree when compared to their counterparts in the conventional method.

Another possible explanation may lie in the competition inherent in simulation games. It may be that the low SES students always or almost always lost the game,

or in terms of City Council: A Simulation Game were seldom re-elected to Council. This in turn may have strengthened their sense of alienation rather than increasing their feeling that individual political action can have an impact upon the political process. The investigator's method of collecting data did not enable him to determine if this relationship does in fact exist. Further research is needed to determine if players who win one or more rounds of City Council: A Simulation Game change their attitude of political efficacy significantly more than players who never win.

Conclusions Relating to Sex

Taken together the findings relative to questions 1 and 2 provide a meaningful context for interpretation. The answer to these two questions indicated that the independent variable of treatment was a significant factor with change scores of both girls and boys sub-groups in the simulation game as compared to those of the girls and boys sub-groups in the conventional method being significantly different in a positive direction in favor of the former two sub-groups.

Furthermore, it appears that simulation game play has a greater impact on males with regard to the dependent variable studied than females. It is interesting to note that the boys had larger gain scores than the girls in the

control as well as the experimental group.

What would account for these differences? At least two possibilities exist. First, since politics has in the past been considered as an area of endeavour primarily for males, it is possible that the differential impact of this simulation game by sex role may be a result of this particular simulation game and not simulation games in general. Further research, then, is needed with other simulation games to establish whether this differentiated attitude change is characteristic of a political simulation game or of simulation games in general.

On the other hand it is also possible that simulation games have a greater impact on boys because more of their peer activities are in game settings. In other words, girls may have more unstructured peer activities in the way of discussions, movies or shopping. This however is conjecture. What is needed is a survey of youngsters' activities outside of the formal school setting.

Conclusions Relating to Age

The findings relative to questions 3, 4 and 5 are considered together. Our data indicated that the student's age in relation to the grade average has meaningful effects upon his change of the attitude of political efficacy. Questions 3 and 5 were answered in the negative, that is,

there was found no significant difference in change in the attitude of political efficacy between treatments for the older than grade average and the younger than grade average sub-groups. Question 4 was answered in the affirmative, that is, that there was a significant difference ($p < .001$) in change in the attitude of political efficacy between treatments for the average students. The difference favored the simulation group. Because of the lack of theoretical basis in the formulation of the question, no explanation for these findings is offered.

Other Conclusions

In reporting the findings relative to questions 7 and 14, no explanation was provided. The fact that these questions were not theoretically formulated prevented such a provision.

Summary of Conclusions

The study provides substantial statistical evidence to support the hypothesis that a simulation game will be significantly ($p \leq .05$) more effective in changing the attitude of political efficacy of sixth grade students than will a conventional strategy of instruction.

The data suggest that a simulation game is significantly ($p \leq .05$) more effective than a conventional method in changing the attitude of political efficacy for the following types of students: average age, below average

I.Q., average I.Q., middle SES, upper SES and underachievers. The conventional strategy of instruction was not significantly ($p \leq .05$) more effective than the simulation game in changing the attitude of political efficacy for any sub-group of students.

III. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study should be just a beginning of the exploration of simulation games as a method of changing the attitude of political efficacy of students. On the basis of the experience gained while conducting this project, the following are some recommended future courses of action.

1. The results of this investigation coupled with the findings of Easton and Hess (1962) that the formative years for political attitudes are between the ages of three and thirteen suggest that grade six may be the best grade for using a simulation game to affect a change in the attitude of political efficacy. It is worthy of further study to determine the relative effectiveness of City Council: A Simulation Game in changing the attitudes of students in several grades -- let us say grades 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. Further, it is worthy of developmental study to determine if adequate simulation models can be developed for use in the primary grades.

2. This investigator tends to feel at this point

that while the simulation game itself can effect a change in the attitude of political efficacy, the amount of attitudinal change might be substantially greater if the simulation game were used in conjunction with other materials. This researcher has in mind development of a curriculum unit, with City Council: A Simulation Game as the framework, plus supplementary readings and films. It seems reasonable to postulate that the excitement and momentum generated by the simulation game can be chanelled into an even more impressive attitude change.

IV. IMPLICATIONS FOR CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION

Because of the importance of employing stragegies to develop political norms such as political efficacy and as a result of the empirical evidence contained in this report, this researcher strongly recommends the inclusion of City Council: A Simulation Game as part of the upper elementary social studies curriculum. The evidence further suggests that the use of other simulation games based upon the learning theory of Leon Festinger discussed in Chapter I in which students take roles inconsistent with their beliefs will result in attitude change. Needless to say, since many of the problems of game design have yet to be overcome, not all simulation games based upon this theory of learning will prove to be effective in changing students' attitudes.

The findings indicate that this type of simulation game should be most effective in bringing about attitudinal change when used with underachieving students and with students of average and below average ability.

Considering the role simulation games are playing, as well as the expanded importance they are beginning to enjoy as the large curriculum projects begin to publish simulation games, it might not be too far from the truth to say that we are in the beginning stage of a movement, not just a technique.

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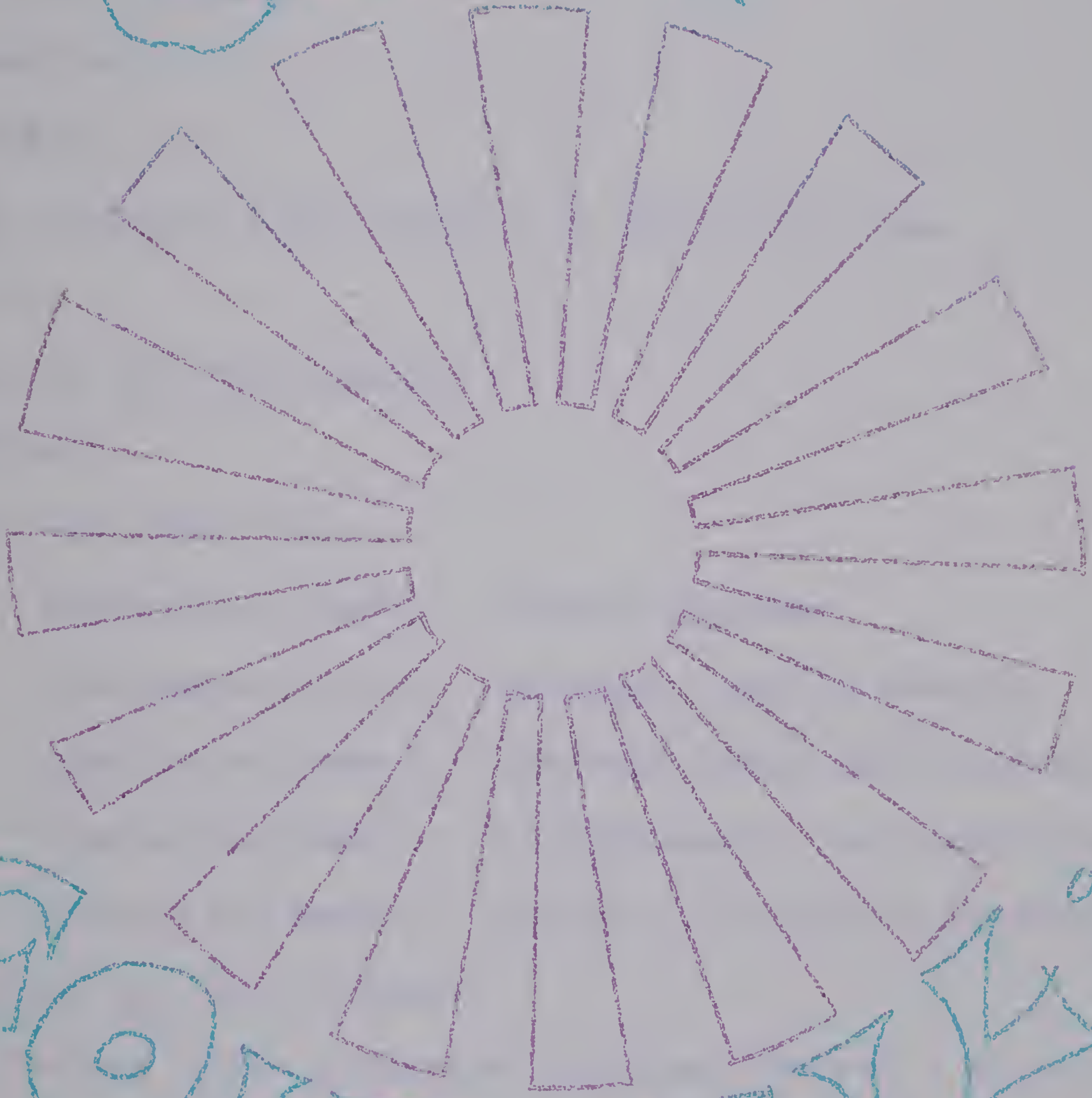
APPENDIX A

TEACHER'S MANUAL FOR CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME

CITY



COUNCIL:

SIMULATION GAME

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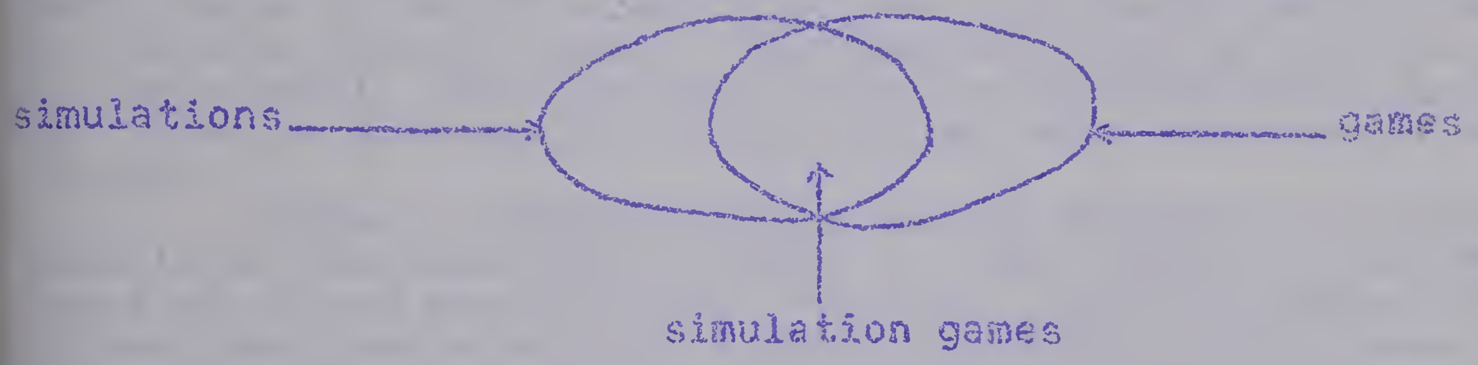
SIMULATION GAMES AND THE "NEW" SOCIAL STUDIES

Today in Canada and the United States Social Studies teaching is in ferment. No longer satisfied with classroom teaching dominated by textbooks, teachers are examining course content and teaching method in the light of concepts such as the following: inductive or inquiry learning; discovery of a discipline's structure; involvement through interaction and value conflicts; learning rather than teaching. One method which incorporates all of these ideas is the application of game theory to classroom instruction by constructing simulations.

What then are simulation games and how is this technique currently being applied in the area of social studies instruction? A seemingly simple question as "What is a simulation game?" is likely to evoke a variety of different and sometimes contradictory answers. At the present time there is considerable debate over the proper use of the terms, "simulation" and "games". Although a number of writers use the two terms interchangeably I think that an understanding of the nature of CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME and other "educational games" such as those developed at Western Behavioral Sciences Institute and by Academic Games Associates requires thinking of them as two separate techniques. These two techniques and the way in which simulation games combine the two are diagrammed below. Thus, this writer, taking the form suggested in the first issue of the Foreign Policy Association's New Dimensions[1] Series entitled "Simulation Games for the Social Studies Classroom", will use the two terms in combination with each other.



One of the reasons, apparently, why many people prefer to use the term "simulation" to describe what others refer to as "games" is that the latter term has a strong connotation of frivolity. Quite often "simulation" is used in presenting the plan to administrators because the connotation is constructive while "games" is used with students because the connotation is fun. I suspect, however, that most users of simulation games in the social studies classroom look upon the debate over the term as a meaningless intellectual exercise of semantics.

All simulation games combine the properties of games in general with the properties of simulations in general. Webster defines a game as "a physical or mental competition conducted according to rules in which the participants play in direct opposition to each other, each side striving to win and to keep the other side from doing so." Thus, a game can be thought of as a contest or competition. However, in a game, a player does not always compete with other players. He may also compete with himself or with the environment. To do this he must make decisions.

According to Cherryholmes "a game becomes a simulation when it attempts to model a referent system."[2] However, all games are not

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[1] The Foreign Policy Association. "Simulation Games For The Social Studies Classroom." New Dimensions: 1, No. 1. 1968.

[2] Cleo H. Cherryholmes. "Simulating Inter-Nation Relations in the Classroom." In International Dimensions in the Social Studies. 38th Yearbook of the N.C.S.S. Washington, D.C.: N.C.S.S. 1968. p. 176.

simulations. It is difficult to imagine what theoritical process or system is being represented when the Chicago Black Hawks play the Boston Bruins. There are also many educational games which are not simulations (e.g., the Propaganda Game, Euro-Card, Wff'n Proof, Laymen Allen's Equations Game and other mathematical games). Nor are all simulations games. A wind tunnel experiment simulating the performance of a racing car design does not constitute a game. Not only are not all simulations designed for teaching purposes, but not even all teaching simulations are games (e.g., young children are sometimes taught how community institutions operate through such activities as running a school store or role playing a community situation).

Simulations, broadly defined, are condensed representations or simplified models of real world processes or systems.[1] Simulations are dynamic or operating models.[2] Kinley defines a model as a simplified representation of a process and a simulation as the exercise of the operation of that model.[3]

In every simulation game all players have goals and the rules specify both what the goals are and how the goals are reached. For example in CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME each student, an elected member of the city council, is faced with the goal of getting re-elected. Each player is dealt cards which show the preference of the people in his ward on certain issues. He then works for or against these issues in the council. He is re-elected or not according to the number of satisfied or dissatisfied people in his ward as a result of his voting record.

Thus, a simulation game may be defined as an operating but simplified representation (model) of some system or process in which there are human participants (players), payoffs assigned to outcomes (objectives) and constraints under which play takes place (rules). Basically, then, a simulation game is the building of a model and having participants operate it according to selected rules.

Simulation games in the social studies place the student in a role playing situation where he assumes a decision making role and where he must follow procedures and rules to achieve specific objectives. Simulation games, as defined above, thus, differ in certain important respects from role playing as normally used in the social studies. A simulation game is an operating model of a system or process, whereas role playing is a description of an activity. As a rule, in role playing, a student is placed in a static situation and is expected to elaborate a single response to this situation. A simulation game, on the other hand, is more highly structured than is role playing activity. In a simulation game the individual is placed in a situation that is changing all the time and where he is called upon to make a series of cumulative decisions, each based upon the outcome of the previous decision(s). Thus, in a simulation game a student cannot adopt a single mind set and adhere to it but must adapt to changing circumstances.

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[1] Richard E. Dawson. "Simulation in the Social Sciences." In Harold Guetzkow, editor. Simulation in International Relations: Development for Research and Teaching. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall. 1963. pp. 1-3.

[2] Sidney Verba. "Simulation, Reality, and Theory in International Relations." World Politics. 16: 490-519; October 1963.

[3] Holly J. Kinley. "Development of Strategies in a Simulation of Internal Revolutionary Conflict." The American Behavioral Scientist. 10: 5-9; November 1966.

THE SIMULATION GAME

CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME is actually a set of five simulation games. Each simulation game teaches some aspect of the workings of city council.

The game works best when all players either sit around a large table or move their desks together to form a circle.

INTRODUCTION FOR TEACHERS

The suggestions and instructions below are geared to the special requirements of the classroom setting. It should be stressed at the outset that the teacher, as the director of the simulation game, has an extremely important role in explaining the techniques and procedures of this activity. It is, therefore, crucial to the success of this technique that the teacher familiarize himself thoroughly with this manual.

OVERVIEW

CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME is a simplified version of decision-making in the civic government. Its purpose is to help the participant gain insights into the complexity of decision-making in a participatory democracy.

MATERIALS LIST

Materials for 33 players are packaged in this simulation game.

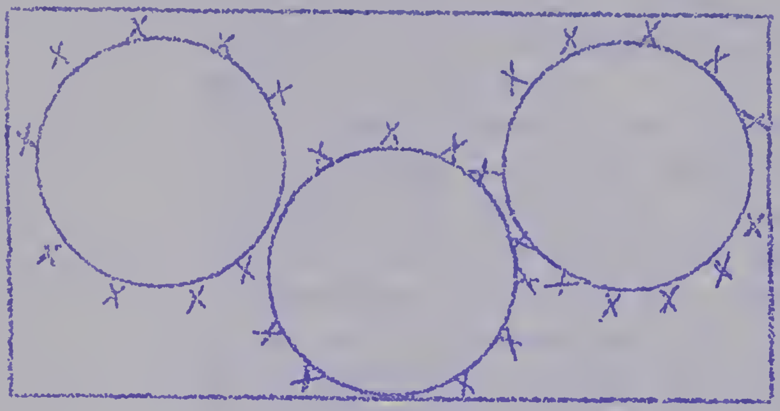
1	Simulation Game Manual
3	Instructions for the Chairman
3	Sets of 52 Ward Cards for simulation games 1 & 4 (color-yellow)
3	Sets of 8 Issue Cards for games 1 & 4 (color-red)
5	Sets of 20 Age, Sex, and Marital Status Cards for simulation games 2 & 3 (color-orange)
5	Sets of 20 Occupation, Income, and Race Cards for simulation games 2 & 3 (color-pink)
5	Sets of 20 Membership in Organization Cards for games 2 & 3 (color-tan)
5	Sets of 8 Issue Cards for simulation games 2 & 3 (color-red)
3	Sets of 55 Ward Cards for simulation game 5 (color-violet)
3	Sets of 6 Issue Cards for simulation game 5 (color-red)
30	Secretary's Vote Form (color-orange)
33	Alderman's Work Sheets for simulation game 5 (color-green)
33	Alderman's Statement of Position on Issues (for use with simulation game 4)
1	Spirit Master for Alderman's Work Sheet for simulation game 1
1	Spirit Master for Citizen's Work Sheet for simulation game 2
1	Spirit Master for Alderman's Work Sheet for simulation game 4

THE NUMBER OF PLAYERS

Each simulation game is designed for playing by 5 to 11 persons (preferably an odd number). If there are more than 11, the group should be divided into 2 or more teams. For example, in a classroom of 31 students, 9 would play one game, 11 a second game, and 11 a third game; rather than 10, 10, 11.

SPACE REQUIRED

In most classrooms 3 Council Sessions will be playing simultaneously. If at all possible, 3 separate rooms or 1 large room such as a gymnasium should be used. However, if this is impossible, it is suggested that an arrangement such as the following be used.



LESSON PLANS

Below is a suggested time schedule based on 60 minute social studies periods.

1. Day One - (A) Administer Pre-Test (approximate time-15 minutes)
   (B) It is absolutely necessary that the students be able to add positive and negative numbers (e.g., add + 200 and - 250 to get - 50). Thus, a lesson and student practice on this would be mandatory at the sixth grade level. (approximately 15 minutes, depending on the ability of the students)
   (C) An overview of and introduction to CITY COUNCIL, A SIMULATION GAME. Briefly introduce the students to the 3 levels of government in Canada (federal, provincial, and civic) and point out that this simulation game deals only with civic government. Have your students discuss the functions of each level of government. Develop an understanding of the following concepts: city council, alderman, mayor, agenda, civic government, ward, and politics. If time permits introduce the 8 issues used in this simulation game: Omniplex, Pollution Control, Public Housing, Urban Renewal, Rapid Transit, Parks and Recreation, Zoning, and Annexation. (approximate time 30 minutes)
   (D) The 3 Chairmans should study "The Simulation Game Rules" and "Instructions For The Chairman" before Day 2.
2. Day Two - (A) The teacher tells the class they will be playing a simulation game. They will not be students but rather elected members of City Council. The teacher explains that although the situation in the simulation game is not as complex as it is in the "real world", the class will gain insights

into the methods of decision making in the context of civic government. (approximate time-10 minutes)

(B) Play a practice round. The teacher takes 11 students through a practice run in front of the rest of the class. Do not be concerned if you do not get through all 8 issues in Step 5 of the simulation game. Several issues will suffice to give the students a feel for how the simulation game is played.

3. **Day Three** - The class should be ready today to participate in 3 council sessions (simulation game 1). Divide the class or allow them to divide themselves into 3 more or less equal groups (remember that if possible each group should have an odd number of students). A good deal of confusion is to be expected today. Be available to offer assistance when required and to check to see that forms are being filled out correctly and that there are no errors in computation.k The greatest problem today will probably be computing "My Ward Score". The students will have an additional 15 minutes tomorrow to complete the game. (time-60 minutes)

4. **Day Four** -
   (A) Complete Simulation Game 1 (approximate time-15 minutes)
   (B) Debriefing and Discussion Period. In addition to an introduction outlining the rules and techniques of the simulation game, it is suggested that at various points (debriefing and discussion periods), the teacher discuss with the Players the strategies and actions that have been carried out and compare them with the "real world". The most useful take-off for discussion in this and later defriefing periods is to identify the winners and have them discuss their strategies. Players who did less well may then be asked to compare and to consider the reasons for the difference. (approximate time-15 minutes)
   (C) Play simulation game 1 again (approximate time-30- minutes) The students will have an additional 30-45 minutes tomorrow to complete the game.

5. **Day Five** -
   (A) Complete simulation game 1. The teacher should stress, at this point and throughout the simulation game experience, the importance of thinking about the simulated action in terms of the "real world" situation. (approximate time-30-45 minutes)
   (B) Debriefing and Discussion Period. (approximate time- 15-30 minutes)

6. **Day Six**
   (A) Introduction to simulation game 2 (approximate time 15 minutes)
   (B) Play simulation game 2. (approximate time-45 minutes) The students will have an additional 15-30 minutes tomorrow to complete the game.

7. Day Seven -
   - (A) Complete simulation game 2 (approximate time-15-30 minutes)
   - (B) Debriefing and Discussion Period. (approximate time-15-30 minutes)
   - (C) Introduction to simulation game 3. (approximate time-15 minutes)
8. Day Eight - Play simulation game 3. (time-60 minutes) The students will have an additional 15 to 30 minutes tomorrow to complete the game.
9. Day Nine -
   - (A) Complete Simulation Game 3. (approximate time-15-30 minutes)
   - (B) Debriefing and Discussion Period. (approximate time-15-30 minutes)
   - (C) Pass out to each student "Alderman's Statement of Position on Issues". These were kindly written by Edmonton's aldermen in April, 1970 and are to be used only with this simulation game. Have students begin reading these statements. (approximatel time- 15 minutes)
10. Day Ten - The students are to carefully study the "Aldermen's Statement of Position on Issues" that were given out last day and to write in one or two good sentences their position on all 8 issues. The students should state whether they are for or against the issue and why. The statements that the students write will be used in simulation game 4, tomorrow. (time-60 minutes)
11. Day Eleven -
    - (A) Introduction to simulation game 4. (approximate time-15 minutes)
    - (B) Play simulation game 4. (approximate time-45 minutes) The students will have an additional 30 to 45 minutes tomorrow to complete the game.
12. Day 12 -
    - (A) Complete simulation game 4. (approximate time-30-45 minutes)
    - (B) Debriefing and Discussion Period. (approximate time-15-30 minutes)
13. Day Thirteen - Play simulation game 4 again. (time-60 minutes) The students will have an additional 15 minutes tomorrow to complete the game.
14. Day Fourteen -
    - (A) Complete simulation game 4. (approximate time-15 minutes)
    - (B) Debriefing and Discussion Period. (approximate time-15-30 minutes)
    - (C) Introduction to Simulation Game 5. (approximate time-15 minutes)
    - (D) Play Simulation Game 5. (approximate time-15 minutes) The students will have an additional 30 to 45 minutes tomorrow to complete the game.
15. Day Fifteen
    - (A) Complete Simulation Game 5. (approximate time-30-45 minutes)
    - (B) Debriefing and Biscussion Period. (approximate time- 15-30 minutes)

16. Day Sixteen - (A) Administer Post-Test. (approximate time- 15 minutes)
(B) Evaluate the simulation game experience. Have students complete "Evaluation Form". Then discuss with students such questions as:
Was it worth playing the game?
What elements of city government are missing?
How would you change the game to make it more real to life?

A NOTE TO USERS OF CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME

I have enclosed a short questionnaire which will aid me in a further revision of this simulation game and the development of new simulation games and other instructional materials. I would appreciate your help in completing the questionnaire and returning it to me after you have used the simulation game. A stamped and addressed envelope has been enclosed for your convenience.

FINAL NOTES

The simulation game will run more smoothly if the teacher takes one team through a practice run in front of the class. If possible, the teacher should also let 3 players (the 3 who will be Chairman) study the simulation game manual in advance.

The success of CITY COUNCIL: A SIMULATION GAME will to a large extent depend on the creative leadership of the teacher. Each group using this manual will use it differently. Problems will arise as the simulation game develops. Teachers should be alert and ready to make changes in the manual or to suggest new "rules" as the exercise progresses.

Some confusion is to be expected. If after several runs of the simulation game you think you have accomplished nothing and there is nothing but commotion, don't give up. This too happened to the developer of this simulation game when he tested it in grade six in April 1970. Things begin to go smoothly as the students learn the strategies.

As students begin to negotiate there will be considerable movement. However, too much activity may indicate that the students are just restless. The teacher should be on the alert for movement which is not associated with the simulation game itself and control it.

INTRODUCTION FOR PARTICIPANTS

It will become very clear that our "simulated" world is a very (if not over-) simplified replica of the "real world". However, it is my assumption that by taking the role of an Alderman in simulation games 1, 3, 4, and 5; and the role of an individual citizen in simulation games 2 and 3, the participant will become more aware of just what is involved in decision making at the civic government level

THE CHAIRMAN

In each of the 5 simulation games one player acts as Chairman. (5 Chairmans are needed in simulation games 2 and 3) He is either elected by the aldermen or appointed beforehand by the teacher. The Chairman should be a good student. Briefing the Chairman before playing will simplify instructions during play especially if many groups are playing simultaneously. There is a Chairman's Checklist with the basic set of rules. This will aid the Chairman in keeping a step by step

account of the game. It is also recommended that the Chairman have access to and read this Simulation Game Manual before the simulation game begins. The Chairman negotiates and has one vote just as any other Alderman.

The Chairman is responsible for:

(1) Running the COUNCIL SESSION (in games 2 & 3 running the CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING); and

(2) Appointing a secretary to record the votes on the issues.

THE SIMULATION GAME RULES

SIMULATION GAME 1: COUNCIL SESSION

In COUNCIL SESSION each player takes the role of an alderman representing a ward in a Canadian metropolis. You will meet to negotiate and to vote on issues concerning 8 civic problems. Your goal is to stay in office by meeting the needs of the people in your ward.

EQUIPMENT:

3 Sets of 52 Ward Cards (color-yellow)
3 Sets of 8 Issue Cards (color-red)
1 Alderman's Work Sheet for simulation game 1 for each Player
1 Secretary's Vote Form for the Secretary (color-orange)

RULES:

To Start the Chairman distributes all 52 Ward Cards face down to the Players, including himself. All cards are distributed, even if one or more Players have an extra card. Each card indicates the preferences of some voters in your ward on one issue, and your set of cards shows the preferences of all voters in your ward. This gives each player certain preferences or interests toward which he must work.

Step 1: Compute and fill in your "Ward Interest Scores" on the "Alderman's Work Sheet". Each of the Ward Cards tell how some of the people in your ward feel about one of the issues. Using all the cards on one issue, calculate the net difference between the "fors" and the "againsts". Suppose you receive 2 "Pollution Control" Ward Cards. The 1st card shows 75 persons for and 125 persons against; the 2nd card shows 100 persons for and 250 against. The "fors" equal 75 + 100 = 175; the "againsts" equal 125 + 250 = 375. The net difference is - 200. Enter - 200 in the line marked "My Ward Interest Scores" under "Pollution Control". Do the same for each issue. Be sure to place either a (+) or a (-) in front of each "Ward Interest Score". A (+) in the box indicates that the people in your ward are in favor of the issue and thus you want that issue passed. A (-) in the box indicates that the people in your ward are against the issue and thus you want that issue defeated or voted down. An absence of cards on an issue indicates that the people in your ward don't care how you vote on that issue. Put an "0" on your Work Sheet for that issue.

When you have filled in all your "Ward Interest Scores", you can spend the rest of the time studying your scores and preparing statements so that you will be certain which issues are most important to the people in your ward.

During this step the Chairman appoints one of the Players to act as Secretary and discusses with him the "Secretary's Vote Form". The Secretary should sit beside the Chairman since they will be working together during the simulation game.

Step 2: The Chairman calls on each Player in turn to make a statement (if the Player desires to do so), announcing how the people in his Ward feel about 1 or 2 of the issues. You may tell as much or as little as you choose about your positions on issues. It is desirable, although not mandatory that each Alderman state his position (without giving his Ward Interest Score) in order that it will be known to the others. Having done so he can participate more effectively in the discussion and negotiation periods. Use the work sheet section marked "Other Alderman's Name and Position On Issues" by placing a + or a - beside a Player's name when he mentions some issue positively or negatively.

Step 3: Discussion and Negotiation Period. (approximate time-2 minutes) You are free to move around, talk with other Players, and try to line up votes for the issues in which you are most interested. Use the bottom half of the Worksheet to keep track of any agreements made during this and later discussion and negotiation periods. The length of this and later discussion and negotiation periods in this and following simulation games should be flexible to meet the needs and desires of the Players.

Step 4: The Chairman calls the Council Session to order.

The Chairman then shuffles the set of 8 issue cards. The Chairman turns up the top card from the shuffled pack. The Chairman announces that this issue is now before the Council.

At this point several things can happen:

(1) A motion can be made on the issue. The motion is seconded. The Chairman then announces that a further discussion and negotiation period of approximately 2 minutes is in order. It is during this period that your skill as a politician is tested. If the Council is considering an issue that is very important to the people in your ward then you will want to get as much support as possible for the issue from your fellow Aldermen. This can be done by promising to vote for or against an issue yet to be considered. If the issue before Council is not very important to the people in your ward then you go to the other Aldermen an say something like, "Look, the people in my Ward are against this issue, but I will vote for it if you will vote for issue so and so which is very important to me."

After the Discussion and Negotiation Period, the Chairman calls the Council to order and conducts a vote on the issue. The Secretary keeps track of the votes for and against on the "Secretary's Vote Form". Each Alderman, including the Chairman and Secretary, has one vote. for passage or defeat of each issue that come up. All Aldermen, including the Chairman, must vote on all issues. Aldermen may vote against their own interests on some issues if they feel that this is the best way to line up support on other more important ones. Aldermen may also break promises to other Players if they feel that such a change of mind will be to the benefit of the people in their Ward, although you must remember that trust is an important element in politics. Tie vote loses and is thus treated the same as a defeat of the issue.

After the vote the Chairman announces whether the issue was passed or defeated. Each Player then places on his Worksheet on the line "Issue Passed or Failed" under that issue a (+) if the issue passed, a (-) if the issue was defeated. Each Player then computes his Ward Score for that issue and records it on the line marked "My Ward Score". Each Alderman counts as positive (+) his Ward Scores on which the outcome of the voting satisfied the people in his Ward, and counts as negative (-) his Ward Scores on which the outcome of the voting went against the desires of the people in his Ward. Example: If the Player's "Ward Interest Score" for Omniplex (entered at the top of his Alderman's Work Sheet) is + 40, he gets + 40 points if the issue is passed and - 40 points if the issue is defeated. If the Player's"Ward Interest Score" is - 40, he gets - 40 points if the issue is passed and + 40 points if the issue is defeated. If his "Ward Interest Score" is "0" he would get "0" points no matter what the outcome of the vote.

(2) A motion can be made on the issue. If there is no second, the issue "dies for want of a second", and the Chairman will announce that the next issue is before the council.

(3) A motion can be made to "table the issue". This means to "put it on the table", or temporarily postpone consideration of it. If seconded, the motion to table is voted on. A motion to table is never discussed. That is, once the motion to table is made and seconded, a vote is taken on it immediately. If a majority of the Aldermen vote to table, the issue is placed at the bottom of the agenda. Thus, it is brought up again at a later point in the game. However, 2 tabling motions end the consideration of that issue. If the motion to table receives no second, or if a majority vote against the motion, or if there is a tie vote, the issue is still before the Council.

Step 5: The Chairman then turns up the 2nd issue card and announces that this issue is now before the Council, and so on until all issues have been voted upon.

Step 6: Scoring. Each Player totals his Ward Scores to give his game score and records it on the line marked "My Total Game Score". A positive (+) score means that the Alderman is re-elected; a negative (-) score indicates defeat.

The Secretary calculates a score for the Council as a whole by totaling the scores of all Aldermen. This score represents the city's overall satisfaction with this council. If 2 or more councils are playing at the same time, this score can be used to determine whichCouncil is the winner.

SIMULATION GAME 2: CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING

In CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING each Player takes the role of an individual citizen in a CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING. You will meet to discuss and to vote on issues concerning 6 civic problems. Your goal is to have the outcome of the decision and voting consistent with your interests.

EQUIPMENT:

5 Sets of 20 Age, Sex, and Marital Status Cards (color-orange)
5 Sets of 20 Occupation, Income, and Race Cards (color- pink)
5 Sets of 20 Membership in Organization Cards (color-tan)
5 Sets of 8 Issue Cards (color-red)
1 Citizen's Work Sheet for each Player
1 Secretary's Vote Form for the Secretary (color-orange)

RULES:

To Start the Chairman shuffles each of the 3 sets of role cards listed above, in turn, and deals one from each set to each Player.

Step 1: Compute and fill in your "Interest Scores on the "Citizen's Work Sheet". Each of the 3 cards you received not only describes certain of your personal characteristics, but also tells how you as a citizen feel about one or more of the issues. Calculate the net differences between the"fors"(+) and the "againsts" (-) on your 3 role cards for each issue and enter these figures on the line marked "My Interest Scores". Absence of an issue on the role cards means that your interests are not affected by the issue one way or the other. You should put an "0" on your Work Sheet for that issue. You will wish to use that issue for making agreements with other citizens in step 3.

When you have filled in all your interest scores, you can spend the rest of the time studying your scores and preparing statements so that you will be certain which issues are the most important to you.

During this step the Chairman appoints one of the Players to act as Secretary and discusses with him the Secretary's Vote Form.

Step 2: The Chairman calls on each Player in turn to make a statement announcing how he feels about some of the issues without giving his interest scores. You may tell as much or as little as you choose about your position on issues. It is desirable, although not mandatory that each citizen state his position on order that it will be known to the other citizens. Having done so he can participate more effectively in the discussion and negotiation periods. Use the work sheet section marked "Other Citizen's Name and Position On Issues" by placing a (+) or a (-) beside a Player's name when he mentions some issue positively or negatively.

Step 3: Discussion and Negotiation Period. (approximate time-2 minutes) You are free to move around, talk with other Players, and try to line up votes for the issues in which you are most interested. Use the bottom half of the Worksheet to keep track of any agreements made during this and later discussion and negotiation periods.

Step 4: The Chairman calls the CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING to order. The Chairman then shuffles the set of 8 Issue Cards and removes 2 from play. These issues remain concealed until end of play. The Chairman turns up the top card from the remaining 6 Issue Cards. The Chairman then announces that this issue is now before the meeting. At this point several things can happen. The procedure here is the same as simulation game 1, step 4.

Step 5: The Chairman turns up another Issue Card and step 4 is repeated, and so on until all 6 issues have been voted upon.

Step 6: Scoring. Each Player totals "My Score" to give his Total Game Score and records it on the line marked "My Total Game Score". The total score indicates the amount of satisfaction the Player has gained as a citizen.

The Secretary calculates a score for the meeting as a whole as the sum of the scores of all citizens. This score shows how well the meeting succeeded in satisfying the interests of its participating citizen If 2 or more meetings are playing at the same time, this score can be used to determine which meeting resulted in the highest satisfaction for its citizens.

Item 1. Scoring. Each Player totals the [illegible] Total Game [illegible] 11 or the like scored [illegible] The total score indicates the amount of [illegible] in [illegible].

The [illegible] for the [illegible] the sum of the [illegible] at all [illegible]. Only [illegible] of the same [illegible] by the [illegible].

SIMULATION GAME 3: INTEREST GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

In INTEREST GROUP EFFECTIVENESS each Player 1st takes the role of an individual citizen in a CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING and then takes the role of an alderman representing a Ward in a Canadian metropolis. This game consists of a number of CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETINGS followed by a number of COUNCIL SESSIONS.

INTEREST GROUP EFFECTIVENESS requires enough Players to form 5 or more CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETINGS. Role cards for 5 meetings are included in simulation game materials. From 5 to 11 Players should be in each meeting. Both stages of this simulation game may be played at the same meeting - one following the other - or 2 separate meetings can be held to complete the simulation game.

The linking together of the 2 simulation games - simulation game 1 and simulation game 2 - shows better than either do separately the relationship of the final decision to the desire of individual citizens. It shows that each citizen can have an impact on the outcome of decision, but that not all can have their way - and particularly that a citizen cannot expect to have his desires well-represented on all issues, but only on those that are most important to him; and even then, only if he concentrates his efforts on those.

EQUIPMENT:

for Stage 1 - same as simulation game 2
for Stage 2 - same as simulation game 1

RULES:

Stage 1 - Divide the Players up into 5 (or more) groups of 5 to 11 Players each, with the same number of Players in each group, if possible. The teacher should give each Player a number from 1 up to the total number in the group, making sure that each Chairman has a different number. Have Players place this number in the top left hand corner of their Work Sheet and circle it.

Play is exactly as in the CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING. Use the rules and equipment of simulation game 2. Due to the decrease in the number of Players per group, the discussion and negotiation periods should be reduced to approximately 1 minute.

At the end of the simulation game use one additional step as follows: Each Player receives an "Alderman's Work Sheet" for use in the 2nd stage. Each Player transfers the number he placed at the top left hand corner of the "Citizen's Work Sheet" to the top left hand corner of the "Alderman's Work Sheet". Circle the number. The Secretary reads the results of the Citizens' Action Meeting and each Player fills in the row marked "My Ward Score" on his Alderman's Work Sheet. Use the total votes on the Secretary's Vote Form multiplied by 10. Example: If there are 6 Players and 4 voted for Urban Renewal and 2 voted against, the Secretary would announce 40 for and 20 against. The net difference between the "fors" and the "againsts" would be 20. + 20 then becomes the "Ward Interest Score" on the Alderman's Work Sheet for this issue. Do the same for all issues. All Players within a Citizens' Public Meeting will have identical scores on their Alderman's Work Sheet.

Stage 2 - Players take their "Alderman's Work Sheet" and move to new locations. All of the #1 Players meet together and form a Council, all of the #2's form another Council, and so on. Each Player keeps his own Alderman's Work Sheet for the Council Session and represents the Citizen group in which he played in the first stage.

The simulation game then proceeds exactly as simulation game 1, except that the 52 Ward Cards are not needed.

The winner of the 2-Stage simulation game is the Player with the highest combined scores from the CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING and the COUNCIL SESSION.

SIMULATION GAME 4: AN ALDERMAN'S OWN CONVICTIONS

In AN ALDERMAN'S OWN CONVICTIONS a 2nd guiding principle for an Alderman's behavior is introduced. Simulation game 1 contained only the principle that makes him responsible to the people in his ward.

Two principles that should guide an alderman's behavior are: (1) His own beliefs about what is best; and (2) The beliefs and desires of the people in his Ward. The electoral system insures that he pay attention to the beliefs and desires of the people in his Ward, for they may vote him out of office at election time. But an Alderman considering only the vote he would gain or lose by an action and not the merit of the action itself would not be much of a politician.

EQUIPMENT:

3 Sets of 52 Ward Cards (color-yellow)
3 Sets of 8 Issue Cards (color-red)
1 Alderman's Work Sheet for Game 4 for each Player
1 Secretary's Vote Form for the Secretary (color-orange)

RULES:

To Start all Players write a (+) or a (-) in the line marked "My Own Convictions" on their Worksheet for each issue. This represents their convictions and position on each issue.

Starting at the Chairman's left and moving left (clockwise) each Player in turn states for approximately one minute the reasons he is in favor of or opposed to an issue of his choosing. He may argue for it or against it. After a Player has argued a position, the same position cannot be argued by another Player, but the opposite position can be taken. Example: If the 1st Player to the left of the Chairman speaks for Omniplex, then no one else can argue in favour of that issue. However another Player can argue against it when his turn comes.

All 52 Ward Cards (color-yellow) are now dealt and the simulation game is played exactly like simulation game 1. As in simulation game 1, each Alderman states how the people in his Ward feel about the issues most important to them. These may not agree with his own convictions.

At the end of play, scoring is done as in simulation game 1 with one variation. Each Player first calculates whether he is re-elected. Among those who are re-elected, the overall winner is the Player who voted with his convictions on the greatest number of issues. The size of a Player's re-election majority does not matter here. Thus, to be the overall winner, the Player must 1st be re-elected, and 2ndly must have voted most often in agreement with his convictions. This must be explained very carefully to all Players before play begins. Make sure they all know what they have to do to win before they receive their Work Sheet.

In this simulation game a Player's winning depends partly on good luck in having a Ward that agrees with him. But it also depends on his skill because he may be able to work for the people in his Ward enough to insure his re-election and still vote his convictions when they disagree with the desires of the people in his Ward.

SIMULATION GAME 5: TAXATION & PUBLIC EXPENDITURE

In TAXATION & PUBLIC EXPENDITURE each Player takes the role of an Alderman and is forced to deal with the negative public reaction to the high cost o$ many desirable programs. In the previous simulation games it was assumed that voters were almost equally distributed in favor of and against each issue on the basis of their beliefs. However, for issues which cost money, most people are in favor of the aims of the issue but are opposed to high government expenditures. For example, most persons are in favor of omniplex, but may oppose a given bylaw because of it high cost.

In simulation game 5, 6 issues are used for the Ward Cards. Annexation and zoning, being issues that do not involve huge public expenditures, are left out of this simulation game. A new set of Ward Cards are used.

Each Ward Card shows how many votes an Alderman will gain toward re-election if a given issue is passed. Thus, all the Ward Cards show (+) scores for passage of issues. If this were all, each Alderman would be re-elected. However, each issue has a certain cost to it and each increase in the budget brings out a certain number of votes against the issue. Although, votes are in favor of all the issues, but if all are passed the budget would be so high as to bring about defeat of all the Aldermen. Thus, each Alderman must work to keep the budget down at the same time that he must work to pass those bills that the people in his Ward want.

EQUIPMENT:

3 Sets of 55 Ward Cards (color-violet)
3 Sets of 6 Issue Cards (red)
1 Alderman's Work Sheet for game 5 for each Player (color-green)
1 Secretary's Vote Form for the secretary (color-orange)

RULES:

To Start the Chairman distributes 5 Ward Cards to each Player. The remaining cards are set aside and not used. Note that a new set of Ward Cards are used in this simulation game.

The procedures for playing this simulation game are nearly identical to those of simulation game 1. The 2 exceptions are as follows:
(1) Each Alderman loses 30 votes for every $10 million in the budget from $10 to $60 million and 60 votes for each added $10 million, beginning with $70 million.
(2) Each Alderman's score is made up by adding together all the (+) votes from the Ward Cards and subtracting their (-) votes due to budget size.

This simulation game is designed to help the student to recognize that one strong limitation on legislation is a budgetary one. Voters often want more legislation than they are willing to pay for. Consequently, for these issues an Alderman is under a somewhat different set of constraints than he is with the type of issue represented in simulation game 1.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CHAIRMAN

SIMULATION GAME I: COUNCIL SESSION

Your task is to be in charge of the Council Session. Here are your responsibilities in detail:

To Start - Distribute one Alderman's Work Sheet for Simulation Game 1 to each Player. Distribute all 52 Ward Cards face down to the Players, including yourself. One or more players may have an extra card.

Step1 - Say, "COMPUTE AND FILL IN YOUR WARD INTEREST SCORES ON THE ALDERMAN'S WORK SHEET. WHEN YOU HAVE FILLED IN ALL YOUR WARD INTEREST SCORES WRITE THE NAMES OF ALL PLAYERS OTHER THAN YOURSELF UNDER OTHER PLAYERS' NAME AND POSITION ON ISSUES. YOU MAY SPEND THE REST OF THE TIME STUDYING YOUR SCORES AND PREPARING STATEMENTS SO THAT YOU WILL BE CERTAIN WHICH ISSUES ARE MOST IMPORTANT TO THE PEOPLE IN YOUR WARD."

During this time you should appoint one of the Players to act as Secretary and give to that person and discuss with him the Secretary's Vote Form. Have the Secretary sit beside you. Have him write the names of all Players, including himself on the Vote Form.

Step 2 - Say, "THE COUNCIL WILL NOW COME TO ORDER". We will WE WILL NOW HAVE SHORT SPEECHES BEGINNING WITH THE PERSON ON MY LEFT. SPEECHES SHOULD INDICATE HOW THE PEOPLE IN YOUR WARD FEEL ABOUT ONE OR TWO ISSUES. REMEMBER TO NOTE OTHER PLAYERS' POSITIONS ON YOUR WORK SHEET."

Step 3 - Discussion and Negotiation Period (approximate time-2 minutes) Say, "WE WILL NOW HAVE A 2 MINUTE DISCUSSION AND NEGOTIATION PERIOD. YOU ARE FREE TO MOVE AROUND THE TABLE TO DISCUSS AND MAKE AGREEMENTS WITH ONE ANOTHER."

Step 4 - Say, "THE COUNCIL WILL NOW COME TO ORDER." Shuffle the set of 8 Issue Cards. Turn up the top card and announce that this issue is now before the Council. Say, "ISSUE (so and so) IS NOW BEFORE THE COUNCIL. DO WE HAVE A MOTION ON THIS ISSUE."

At this point several things can happen:

(1) If a motion is made on the issue, say, "IS THERE A SECONDER?" If someone says, "Second", then say, WE WILL NOW HAVE A FURTHER 2 MINUTE DISCUSSION AND NEGOTIATION PERIOD." After approximately 2 minutes say, "THE COUNCIL WILL NOW COME TO ORDER. WE WILL NOW VOTE ON (Issue so and so - be sure to repeat the name of the issue) ANNOUNCE WHETHER YOU ARE IN FAVOR OF OR OPPOSED WHEN THE SECRETARY CALLS YOUR NAME." Have the Secretary call each Players name in turn and record the vote on the Secretary's Vote Form. Announce whether the issue was passed or defeated. Announce that all players should place on the line "Issue Passed or Failed" under that issue a (+) if the issue passed, a (-) if the issue was defeated. Say, "COMPUTE YOUR WARD SCORE FOR THIS ISSUE AND RECORD IT ON THE LINE MARKED MY WARD SCORE." For directions see Simulation Game Manual, p. 10.

(2) If a motion is made on the issue but there is no second say, "THE ISSUE DIES FOR WANT OF A SECOND." Then announce that the next issue is before the Council.

(3) If a motion is made to table the issue, say, "IS THERE A SECONDER?" If someone says "Second", immediately ask for a vote on the motion to table the issue. If the motion to table passes, the issue is placed at the bottom of the agenda. Then move on to the issue which is next. However, if the motion to table is defeated or if the vote is tied or if there is no second, say, "ISSUE (so and so) IS STILL BEFORE THE COUNCIL."

Step 5 - The procedures that were outlined in step 4 are followed as all 8 issues are brought before the Council.

Step 6 - Say, "TOTAL YOUR WARD SCORES FOR ALL 8 ISSUES AND RECORD IT ON THE LINE MARKED MY TOTAL GAME SCORE." The Secretary then calculates a score for the Council as a whole by adding the scores of all Aldermen.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CHAIRMAN

SIMULATION GAME 2: CITIZENS' PUBLIC MEETING

Your task is to be in charge of the Citizens' Public Meeting. Here are your responsibilities in detail:

To Start - Be sure to shuffle each pack of cards before dealing. Distribute to each Player:
1 Citizen's Work Sheet
1 Age, Sex, and Marital Status Card (color-orange)
1 Occupation, Income, and Race Card (color-pink)
1 Membership in Organization Card (color-tan)

For Steps 1, 2, & 3 - see Instructions for the Chairman, simulation game 1.

Note - Substitute word MEETING for COUNCIL.

Step 4 - Say, "THE MEETING WILL NOW COME TO ORDER." Shuffle and remove 2 issue cards. Remember that the 2 cards remain concealed until the end of play. Turn up the 1st Issue Card. Say, "ISSUE (so and so) IS NOW BEFORE THE MEETING." At this point several things can happen: See "Instructions for the Chairman" for simulation game 1, step 4.

Step 5 - The procedures that were outlined in step 4 are followed as all 6 issues are brought before the Meeting.

Step 6 - Scoring. Say, "TOTAL YOUR SCORES FOR ALL 6 ISSUES AND RECORD IT ON THE LINE MARKED MY TOTAL SCORE. The Secretary then calculates a score for the Meeting as a whole by adding the scores of all citizens.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CHAIRMAN

SIMULATION GAME 3: INTEREST GROUP EFFECTIVENESS

Stage 1 - For Steps 1 - 6 see "Instructions for the Chairman", simulation game 2.

Step 7 - At the end of the Citizens' Public Meeting, give each Player an Alderman's Work Sheet and have them place their number in the top left hand corner and circle it. Have the Secretary read aloud the number of Players for and against each issue so that the Players can fill in their Ward Interest Scores. For directions see simulation game manual, p. 14.

You and your fellow citizens have now completed the 1st stage of the simulation game. Inform your teacher that you and your group are ready to go onto the 2nd stage and then wait for further instructions from your teacher.

Stage 2 - The simulation game then proceeds exactly as simulation game 1 except that the 52 Ward Cards are not needed. For directions, see "Instructions for the Chairman", simulation game 1.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CHAIRMAN

SIMULATION GAME 4: AN ALDERMAN'S OWN CONVICTIONS

To Start - Distribute one Alderman's Work Sheet for simulation game 4 to each Player. Appoint one of the Players to act as Secretary and give him a Secretary's Vote Form. Do not distribute Ward Cards yet. Say, "FILL IN YOUR OWN CONVICTIONS ON EACH ISSUE ON THE LINE MARKED MY OWN CONVICTIONS ON YOUR WORK SHEET. USE A (+) OR A (-) TO INDICATE YOUR CONVICTIONS."

Then say, "BEGINNING WITH THE PERSON ON MY LEFT, EACH PLAYER WILL STATE THE REASONS HE IS IN FAVOR OF OR OPPOSED TO ONE ISSUE OF HIS CHOICE. THE SAME ISSUE CANNOT BE ARGUED BY ANOTHER PLAYER. DO NOT RECORD OTHER PLAYERS' CONVICTIONS ON YOUR WORK SHEET."

Distribute all 52 Ward Cards face down to the Players and proceed with Step 1 of simulation game 1.

For Steps 1 - 5 see "Instructions for the Chairman," simulation game 1.

Scoring -Step 6 - Say, "TOTAL YOUR WARD SCORES FOR ALL 8 ISSUES AND RECORD IT ON THE LINE MARKED, MY TOTAL GAME SCORE. A POSITIVE SCORE MEANS THAT YOU ARE RE-ELECTED, A NEGATIVE SCORE MEANS DEFEAT. ONLY THOSE PLAYERS WHO WERE RE-ELECTED (have them indicate who they are by raised hand) WILL NOW COMPUTE THEIR CONVICTION SCORE ON EACH ISSUE. IF YOU VOTED IN AGREEMENT WITH YOUR CONVICTIONS, SCORE + 1. IF YOU VOTED AGAINST YOUR CONVICTIONS, SCORE - 1. DO THIS FOR ALL 8 ISSUES. THEN TOTAL YOUR 8 CONVICTION SCORES AND PLACE ON LINE, MY TOTAL CONVICTION SCORE." The overall winner is the re-elected Player who voted with his convictions on the greatest number of issues, that is, has the highest total conviction score.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR THE CHAIRMAN

SIMULATION GAME: TAXATION & PUBLIC EXPENDITURE

To Start - Distribute one Alderman's Work Sheet for game 5 (color-green) to each Player. Distribute 5 Ward Cards (color-violet) to each Player. The remaining cards are set aside and not used.

Proceed with Step 1 of simulation game 1. For Steps 1 - 5 see "Instructions for the Chairman", simulation game 1.

Note that Players compute their Ward Score for only the issues that pass. There cannot be any negative (-) points since issues that were defeated were ignored. Also note that Players compute their Budget Cost for only the issues that pass. Budget cost is determined by referring to line marked, "Cost". Example: If Omniplex passed, the Budget cost is 30 M.; it it failed, the budget cost is "0". If Public Housing passed, the Budget cost is 10 M.; if it failed, the Budget cost is "0", and so on.

Step 6 - Scoring. Say, "TOTAL YOUR WARD SCORES AND RECORD IT ON THE LINE MARKED, POSITIVE VOTES FROM WARD CARDS."

"Total Budget Costs" is determined from "Issue Passed or Failed" which is the same for everyone in the Council. Thus, each Player in the group will have the same "Total Budget Costs". Figure it out as a group and get your teacher to check it before you figure out "My Total Game Score". "Total Budget Costs" is computed as so many votes lost. For every $10 Million in the Budget from $10 to $60 Million, each Player loses 30 votes and for each added $10 million beginning with $70 Million each Player loses 60 votes. Say, "ALL ALDERMEN WILL NOW SUBTRACT THEIR TOTAL BUDGET COSTS FROM THEIR POSITIVE VOTES FROM WARD CARDS AND ENTER FINAL SCORE ON LINE MARKED, MY TOTAL GAME SCORE." When all Aldermen have a total game score the Secretary calculates a score for the Council as a whole by adding the scores of all aldermen.

(FEELINGS TOWARD CITY GOVERNMENT ATTITUDE SURVEY)

DIRECTIONS

There is no time limit on this attitude survey because it is in no sense a speed performance. Speed does not count. Allow each student as much time as he likes. (5 to 10 minutes is usually ample time.)

There should be no explanation of the purpose of the attitude survey or any discussion about the statements either before it is taken or after.

Be sure that all student have an pencil (not pen) and an eraser. Say, " I WILL BE PASSING OUT A SHEET OF PAPER, FACE DOWN. DO NOT TURN IT OVER UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO." Then pass out one attitude survey face down to each student. After each student has a sheet, say, "TURN YOUR SHEET OVER. AFTER 'ATTITUDE SURVEY' IN THE TOP LEFT HAND CORNER, PLACE THE NUMBER (1 for the pre-test; 2 for the post-test). FILL OUT THE BLANKS AT THE TOP. PRINT YOUR NAME, SCHOOL, GRADE, AND THE DATE. PRINT PLAINLY." Please check to see that all blanks are filled in on all sheets.

When all students have filled in these spaces say, "PENCILS DOWN LISTEN CAREFULLY AS I READ THE DIRECTIONS. THIS IS NOT A TEST. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. YOU ARE TO TELL HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT CERTAIN STATEMENTS. ON YOUR SHEET YOU WILL FIND 7 STATEMENTS, EACH EXPRESSING ATTITUDES TOWARD CITY GOVERNMENT. EACH OF THE STATEMENTS ON YOUR SHEET IS FOLLOWED BY 5 POSSIBLE ATTITUDES. YOU ARE TO PLACE AN 'X' IN THE BOX OR CIRCLE WHICH AGREES MOST CLOSELY WITH THE WAY YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH STATEMENT. FOR EXAMPLE, IF YOU STRONGLY AGREE WITH THE STATEMENT, MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX MARKED "STRONGLY AGREE".

"NOW LOOK AT THE SAMPLE STATEMENT. FOLLOW ON YOUR SHEET AS I READ IT ALOUD. 'I THINK WATCHING HOCKEY GAMES ON T.V. IS A BIG WASTE OF TIME'. YOU MAY SAY, 'I LOVE HICKEY AND BOBBY ORR IS MY HERO. THERE IS NOTHING MORE EXCITING THAN WATCHING HOCKEY GAMES'. IF THAT IS YOUR OPINION YOU WOULD MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX MARKED 'STRONGLY ~~AGREE~~ DISAGREE'. ON THE OTHER HAND, YOU MAY SAY, 'I LIKE WATCHING HOCKEY ON T.V. BUT THERE ARE OTHER THINGS I LIKE TO DO TOO'. IF THAT IS YOUR OPINION YOU WOULD PROBABLY MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX, 'DISAGREE'. OR, YOU MAY SAY, 'I HATE HOCKEY ON T.V. BECAUSE THEY TAKE OFF MY FAVORITE SHOWS TO SHOW THE GAMES'. YOU WOULD PROBABLY MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX, 'STRONGLY AGREE'. POSSIBLY YOU SAY, 'I DON'T LIKE WATCHING HOCKEY VERY MUCH BUT I WATCH IT ONCE IN AWHILE WHEN I'VE GOT NOTHING BETTER TO DO'. YOU WOULD PROBABLY MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX, 'AGREE'. OR MAYBE YOU SAY, 'I COULDN'T CARE LESS. IT DOESN'T REALLY AFFECT ME ONE WAY OR THE OTHER'. THEN YOU HAVE "NO OPINION" AND YOU WOULD MARK THAT CIRCLE WITH AN 'X'.

"NOW PICK UP YOUR PENCIL AND DO 'SAMPLE STATEMENT' ONLY". After an appropriate pause say, "PENCILS DOWN". BE SURE YOU ANSWER JUST AS YOU REALLY FEEL. REMEMBER THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. THESE STATEMENTS ARE MATTERS OF OPINION ON WHICH PEOPLE HAVE DIFFERENT IDEAS. IN SOME CASES IT MAY BE DIFFICULT TO DECIDE WHICH BOX TO MARK. MAKE THE BEST DECISION THAT YOU CAN. BE SURE TO MARK ONLY ONE BOX. DO NOT SKIP ANY STATEMENTS. ARE THERE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT WHAT YOU ARE TO DO? (If there are any questions try to refer to the sample, rather than to any of the items that follow. YOU MAY BEGIN NOW".

[illegible] LOW RISK ALTERNATIVE [illegible]

[illegible] has been [illegible] that the [illegible] should [illegible] provide this facility [illegible] the [illegible]. I am also of the opinion that these multi-use facilities be located in downtown Edmonton.

The most important element would [illegible] that of financing. The people have already indicated their [illegible] for such a facility provided that it would not cost more than the ability to finance and operate over a period of years.

Developers are telling [illegible] to understand that this can be done even at the [illegible] interest rates which are prevailing at the present time. I do not believe the attempt on the part of the Federal Government to [illegible] plays a role in this connection, in that I think that under the most favourable circumstances the program will not be under way for another year or more. By that time the economy should have [illegible] enough to make developments of this kind [illegible].

In short, I would like to see a [illegible] in the city for multiplicity of uses and with as little [illegible] as possible.

AN EDMONTON ALTERNATIVE [illegible]

Those who favour the coliseum argue that it will benefit the city as a whole by providing accommodation for [illegible], attracting sports events that would otherwise not be held in Edmonton, or at the very least that they be held in more comfortable surroundings than is now possible, bearing in mind the present housing facilities and our harsh climate.

In addition to the [illegible] facilities provided by [illegible], of course, would be [illegible] trade and [illegible] and the argument runs that by combining these facilities in one building money will be saved.

There is the further argument that such a building will be an architectural and cultural asset to the City of Edmonton whose benefits cannot be measured in mere money.

Those who oppose the coliseum argue that the money that would be spent on

spent on

on it should be spent on [illegible] recreational facilities throughout the City. It is also felt that the coliseum would tend to benefit only a small section of the population, namely the promoters of professional sports, the fans of these sports, [illegible] from other parts of Canada and abroad. The argument is that by spending money on neighbourhood recreational facilities more ordinary Edmontonians will benefit, especially the youngsters who cannot [illegible] at the moment be adequately served by such facilities.

My personal view coincides with the latter [illegible] point of view. But, further, I consider [illegible] of the majority of Edmontonians and it was expressed when an opinion was asked at the [illegible] that a majority was in favour of [illegible] the local plebiscite has been held on the question, and if one were held today there is no doubt what the outcome would be.

[illegible]

[illegible] possible. The [illegible] method of [illegible] carrying people only when [illegible]

[illegible] when it [illegible]

Most people who use public transport [illegible] or transit [illegible] their home and office.

Public transport [illegible]

[illegible] sense on [illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

Studies have shown that rapid transit [illegible] method [illegible] for rapid transit [illegible] rapid transit [illegible] of population.

In the [illegible]

It then becomes a question of [illegible] the alternatives some of which are:

1. [illegible]
2. Greater [illegible]
3. [illegible]
4. Traffic problems of [illegible] rapid transit in that area.

I am in agreement [illegible] feasibility [illegible]

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON PARKS AND RECREATION

My position on parks and recreation is that I approve of what is being done. I am proud of the developments of Whitemud and Windsor Park and not of the opinion that the Parks Department is particularly inefficient although I am sure that it is possible to criticize any organization. I would prefer to spend money on local swimming pools, hockey arenas, tennis courts, and recreational facilities in preference to Omniplex. I think as an alderman I would like to push participative sports rather than speculating sports.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON PARKS AND RECREATION

The river valley should be kept in its natural state.

There should be fewer "ornamental parks" and more parks of a functional nature. I detest "concrete jungles".

We should have more and better recreational facilities, especially skating rinks and swimming pools. However, it is important to make more effecient and effective use of the ones we now have and the ones we will [illegible] in the future.

We need less theoretical hogwash by pseudo-psychologists and more recreation guidance for people. Too many recreation people are trying to be therapists instead of administrators and motivators!

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENTOF POSITION ON ZONING

I have only one pet peeve and that is wall to wall walk ups on cheap duplexes. Any and all zoning in any city should take into consideration the total city picture.

I am not an expert on zoning but from an over-all point of view I prefer one Major downtown core with minor shopping or town centers spread throughout the city. The reason for this being that I feel residential areas should be just that and not a mixture of commercial and residential.

The river valley should be left in its natural state. Properly placed and developed high rises should be relatively close to commercial areas as the majority of people in high rises are childless and business oriented.

Industry should be away from residential areas and guaranteed [illegible] to pollute the environment.

AN EDMONTON'S ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON POLLUTION

Regarding this matter, I would like to indicate that the whole country should make a concerted effort to minimize pollution in a [illegible] society. The actual regulations regarding the pollution are within the Federal and Provincial Governments, and thus the cost for this undertaking rests with them - although, in municipalities they may have to pay for anti-pollution measures which have been requested by the Provincial Government to be provided.

In general, I would like to assure you that it is a very [illegible] multi-faceted problem - one not easily dealt with. The elimination of pollution is very costly. The prevention altogether of pollution is probably prohibitive for industry. But, somewhere in between, a happy medium must be found which will preserve the balance of nature.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON URBAN RENEWAL

Carried out in sufficient [illegible], urban renewal can be a most effective means of improving the environment, and particularly accommodation, of a great many citizens. I am thinking of each one city at a time.

However, no one city can be considered in isolation, and when you take the urban renewal requirements of all the cities of Canada, and lump them together as an item of Canadian, the amount involved would bankrupt this country.

Further, urban renewal is not without adverse sociological effects, especially if the "bulldozer" approach is used.

There is the compromise approach of urban renewal on a smaller scale, the costs being divided between the government and private developers. This works where there are willing private developers, it does not work where there private developers are not willing to cooperate. Thus it could be that municipalities crying out for urban renewal get none, even though government money may be available to them.

There is the further compromise "urban rehabilitation". This involves sprucing up or in some measure renovating or repairing property in run-down neighborhoods. It, too, works on a somewhat restrictive basis in that some neighborhoods, particularly in older cities, are beyond rehabilitation.

From this cursory statement it will be seen that the implications of urban renewal are wide ranging indeed and it is impossible to give a simple answer to the question of urban renewal.

It can and has worked in many parts of the world, but before it is embarked upon sociological and financial factors must be carefully weighed.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON ANNEXATION

The question of making living space available for more people who want to live in Edmonton can be handled in several ways such as increasing allowable density of land use, i.e., letting people build more apartment buildings rather than houses. The City could be made larger by applying to the Provincial Government for another little piece of property each year to take care of the demand as it comes up each year. It can try to acquire a lot of land around the City limits so as to be able to expand developed areas in any direction.

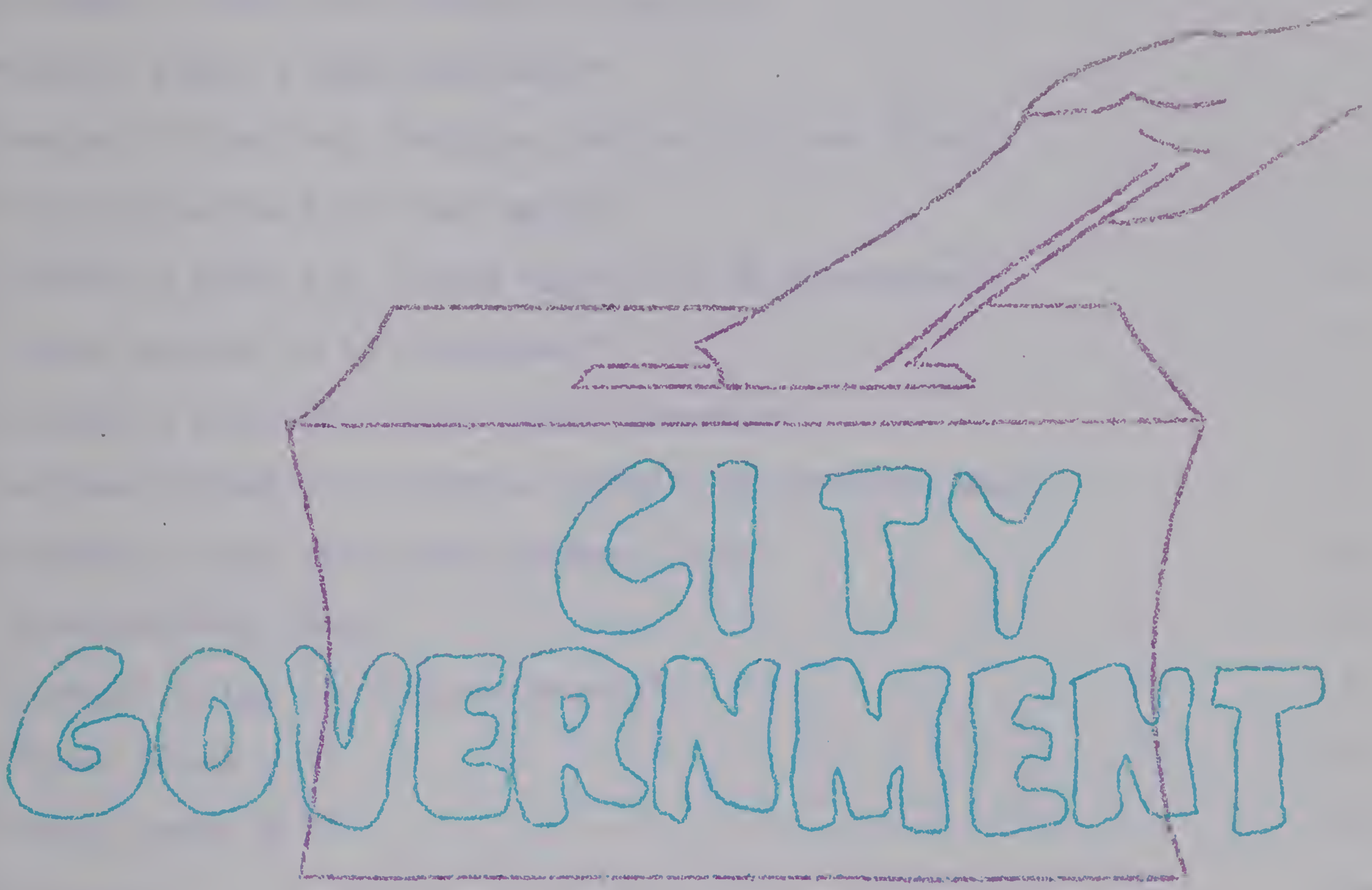
The ability to be able to expand in any direction the City of Edmonton chooses makes the most sense. The City can always allow more apartment buildings as it wishes anyway so people can have more freedom of choice — always a democratic objective. By having lots of area open the City can help direct the growth in an economical way by planning services such as sewer, water, roads, etc., in the most economical way to build.

One difficulty of expansion now is that private developers bring in applications to the City to develop land they own and sometimes try to [illegible] providing service in a direction or area that puts a heavy financial load on the City. This problem gets more acute where we may have several developers trying to get the City to go in several different ways at once. This problem is really much the same for land in the City as well as being the cause of people trying to bring in bits of lands here and there — but it is more easily controlled if the City has plenty of land within its boundaries available to development.

The question of cost is more important — most important — it is cheaper to provide more living accommodation in Edmonton, when it is properly controlled and planned, than to build satellite towns around and I believe the City can best do so by a large scale annexation, such as that recommended by the Hanson report, than by allowing the City to be added to bit by bit, etc.

APPENDIX B

TEACHER'S MANUAL FOR THE CONVENTIONAL STRATEGY OF INSTRUCTION



A UNIT DEVELOPED BY REX Wm. VOGEL.

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LESSON PLANS

Below is a suggested time schedule based on 60 minute social studies periods.

1. Day One - (A) Administer Pre-Test (approximate time-15 minutes)

   (B) An Overview and introduction to the Unit (approximate time-45 minutes) Briefly introduce the students to the 3 levels of government in Canada (federal, provincial, and civic) and point out that this unit emphasises civic government. Have your students discuss the functions of each level of government. Develop an understanding of the following concepts: city council, alderman, mayor, civic government, ward, and politics. Introduce some of the issues that are presently of concern to the citizens of Edmonton and to the people in Edmonton civic government (e.g., urban renewal, public housing, rapid transit, parks and recreation, omniplex, pollution, zoning, and annexation).

2. Day Two - "Groups in Society"(time - 60 minutes) See teacher's plan

3. Day Three -(A) Filmstrip, "You and Your Government" and discussion following filmstrip. (approximate time-30 minutes)

   (B) "People Power a Big Business" (approximate time-30 minutes) Have students read the article and then think about the questions that follow and write answers to the questions on a separate piece of paper. Discuss the questions orally.

4. Day Four - Filmstrips, "Municipal Government" and "You and Your Government" and discussion following out of filmstrips. Compare and contrast the 2 filmstrips. You will note that one is Canadian and the other is American. (time-60 minutes)

5. Day Five - "Writing Letters to Your Mayor" (time-60 minutes) See teacher's plan

6. Day Six - "Joyce Learns To Be President" - a reading (time-60 minutes) See teacher's plan

7. Day Seven - "City Under Pressure" - a 16 mm film (time-60 minutes) See teacher's plan

8. Day Eight - "They're Putting Us Off The Map" - a 16 mm film (time-60 minutes) See teacher's plan

9. Day Nine - "Stoerpenberg Camp" - a reading (time-60 minutes)
See teacher's plan

10. Day Ten - "Stoerpenberg Camp" continued (time-60 minutes)
See teacher's plan

11. Day Eleven - "Value Sheets" - # 1 & # 2. (time-60 minutes)
See teacher's plan

12. Day Twelve - "Protests" - Use 3 transparencies and 3 news item reprints. (time-60 minutes)
Have students read the 3 news item reprints and then do some independent thinking and analysis on the problems. Following this use transparencie and discuss the questions with the class.

13. Day Thirteen - "Edmonton Alderman's Statement of Position on Issu (time - 60 minutes)
Have students carefully read the"Edmonton Alderman's Statement of Positions on Civic Issues Have students write in one or two good sentences statement of their position on these issues. Tell them to be prepared to defend their positions next day.

14. Day Fourteen (A) "Edmonton Alderman's Statement of Position on Issues" (approximate time - 30 minutes)
Discussion of the student's statement of position on Civic Issues. This discussion should lead smoothly into the final topic of the unit (see B)

(B) "If You Were MayorOf Edmonton, What Would You Do?" - essay (approximate time - 30 minutes)
Direct students to think about this question in light of things that we have discussed during the past 3 weeks and write a short essay (1 to 2 pages) on the topic.

15. Day Fifteen - "If you Were Mayor Of Edmonton, What Would You Do?" - essay (time- 60 minutes)

16. Day Sixteen - Administer Post-Test (approximate time-15 minutes)

EFFICACY TOWARD CIVIC GOVERNMENT ATTITUDE SURVEY

DIRECTIONS

There is no time limit on this Attitude survey because it is in no sense a speed performance. Speed does not count. Allow each student as much time as he likes. 5 to 10 minutes is usually ample time.

There should be no explanation of the purpose of the attitude survey or any discussion about the statements either before it is taken or after.

Be sure that all student have an pencil (not pen) and an eraser. Say, " I WILL BE PASSING OUT A SHEET OF PAPER, FACE DOWN. DO NOT TURN IT OVER UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO DO SO." Then pass out one attitude survey face down to each student. After each student has a sheet, say, "TURN YOUR SHEET OVER. AFTER 'ATTITUDE SURVEY' IN THE TOP LEFT HAND CORNER, PLACE THE NUMBER (1 for the pre-test; 2 for the post-test). FILL OUT THE BLANKS AT THE TOP. PRINT YOUR NAME, SCHOOL, GRADE, AND THE DATE. PRINT PLAINLY." Please check to see that all blanks are filled in on all sheets.

When all students have filled in these spaces say, "PENCILS DOWN. LISTEN CAREFULLY AS I READ THE DIRECTIONS. THIS IS NOT A TEST. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. YOU ARE TO TELL HOW YOU FEEL ABOUT CERTAIN STATEMENTS. ON YOUR SHEET YOU WILL FIND 7 STATEMENTS, EACH EXPRESSING ATTITUDES TOWARD CITY GOVERNMENT. EACH OF THE STATEMENTS ON YOUR SHEET IS FOLLOWED BY 5 POSSIBLE ATTITUDES. YOU ARE TO PLACE AN 'X' IN THE BOX OR CIRCLE WHICH AGREES MOST CLOSELY WITH THE WAY YOU FEEL ABOUT EACH STATEMENT. FOR EXAMPLE, IF YOU STRONGLY AGREE WITH THE STATEMENT, MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX MARKED "STRONGLY AGREE'.

"NOW LOOK AT THE SAMPLE STATEMENT. FOLLOW ON YOUR SHEET AS I READ IT ALOUD. 'I THINK WATCHING HOCKEY GAMES ON T.V. IS A BIG WASTE OF TIME'. YOU MAY SAY, 'I LOVE HICKEY AND BOBBY ORR IS MY HERO. THERE IS NOTHING MORE EXCITING THAN WATCHING HOCKEY GAMES'. IF THAT IS YOUR OPINION YOU WOULD MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX MARKED 'STRONGLY ~~AGREE~~ DISAGREE'. ON THE OTHER HAND, YOU MAY SAY, "I LIKE WATCHING HOCKEY ON T.V. BUT THERE ARE OTHER THINGS I LIKE TO DO TOO'. IF THAT IS YOUR OPINION YOU WOULD PROBABLY MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX, 'DISAGREE'. OR, YOU MAY SAY, ' I HATE HOCKEYZ ON T.V. BECAUSE THEY TAKE OFF MY FAVORITE SHOWS TO SHOW THE GAMES". YOU WOULD PROBABLY MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX, 'STRONGLY AGREE'. POSSIBLY YOU SAY, 'I DON'T LIKE WATCHING HOCKEY VERY MUCH BUT I WATCH IT ONCE IN AWHILE WHEN I'VE GOT NOTHING BETTER TO DO'. YOU WOULD PROBABLY MARK AN 'X' IN THE BOX, 'AGREE'. OR MAYBE YOU SAY, 'I COULDN'T CARE LESS. IT DOESN't REALLY AFFECT ME ONE WAY OR THE OTHER'. THEN YOU HAVE 'NO OPINION' AND YOU WOULD MARK THAT CIRCLE WITH AN 'X'.

"NOW PICK UP YOUR PENCIL AND DO 'SAMPLE STATEMENT' ONLY". After an appropriate pause say, "PENCILS DOWN". BE SURE YOU ANSWER JUST AS YOU REALLY FEEL. REMEMBER THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. THESE STATEMENTS ARE MATTERS OF OPINION ON WHICH PEOPLE HAVE DIFFERENT IDEAS. IN SOME CASES IT MAY BE DIFFICULT TO DECIDE WHICH BOX TO MARK. MAKE THE BEST DECISION THAT YOU CAN. BE SURE TO MARK ONLY ONE BOX. DO NOT SKIP ANY STATEMENTS. ARE THERE ANY QUESTIONS ABOUT WHAT YOU ARE TO DO? If there are any questions try to refer to the sample, rather than to any of the items that follow. YOU MAY BEGIN NOW".

[illegible]

[illegible]

ongly

ee

1. People say that [illegible] the city government [illegible]

2. I can't understand what goes on in the city government.

3. What happens in the city government will happen no matter what I do. It is like the weather, there is nothing people can do about it.

4. There are some big powerful men in the city government who are running the whole thing and they do not care about us ordinary people.

5. My family doesn't have any say about what the city government does.

6. I don't think people in the city government care much what people like my family think.

7. [illegible] city government.

TEACHER'S PLAN FOR GROUPS IN SOCIETY

Conduct a simple survey of the groups represented by the students in your class and by their parents. Have each student list on separate 3 X 5 cards each organization to which either they or their parents belong. All the cards could be placed in a container, mixed up, and then withdrawn and categorized on the blackboard. The organizations represented would probably include such groups as the Y.M.C.A., the Boy Scouts, the United Church, the Home and School Association, a Little League Baseball team, a political party, a labor union, and many, many others.

Questions for Discussion:

1. Why do these groups exist?
An examination of such groups should lead to the observation that many groups, while not organized primarily for political reasons, do upon occasion carry out political functions.

2. How can these groups be (or how are these groups) effective in influencing politicians in civic government?

'PEOPLE POWER' A BIG CHALLENGE
by Duart Farquharson

reprinted from The Edmonton Journal,
April 27, 1970, p. 8.

The growing thrust of citizen participation - the demand for "people power" - may be the major challenge facing Canadian cities in the Seventies.

The symbol of mounting disillusionment with city hall establishments everywhere, citizen participation holds out the promise of making local government as democratic in practice as it is in theory.

Yet it also poses serious risks. By raising the hopes of the alienated to levels it may prove impossible to satisfy it could turn frustration into civil unrest, even American-type violence.

Cilizen participation means all things to all people. To many politicians and bureaucrats it raises the spectre of anarchy. Thus Toronto Mayor William Dennison spoke darkly last month of how ancient Greece collapsed because of "too much talk and not enough action."

"The continued erosion of the authority and responsibility of elected politicians can lead to a bulkanization of our society," he warned.

To reform-minded politicians, on the contrary, citizen participation holds out the only hope of restoring cities of the people. To the more cynical it is a political fad to which they must pay lip service. To still others "the people" are in fact composed of elitist power groups whose self-interest must be opposed in the name of democracy.

Regardless of their definitions of citizen participation, most agree that it is here to stay. The phenomenon, in the sense of a ratepayers' group opposing a zoning application, is not new. But in cities like Toronto the inclusion of all income groups in the movement to battle on issues which are city-wide as well as local is new.

Toronto, of course, is the leader in citizen participation activity, followed by Vancouver. The phenomenon is sprouting in one form or another in Montreal, Ottawa, Hamilton, Winnipeg, Calgary, and Halifax. While a few cities like Edmonton appear relatively dormant, no city is healthy enough to escape it.

The basic challenge of the movement is aimed at traditional representative democracy as practiced in all Canadian cities. This has been the idea that a citizen's duty is merely to turn out and vote (which much less than half the electorate does in municipal elections) and let the elected politicans take over from there.

The citizens' groups argue that the system just isn't working. Politicians don't necessarily do what the people want. It therefore becomes up to the people to make them.

The Bureau of Municipal Research, a non-partisan Toronto Institute, last January came out with a study of neighborhood participation in the city's government which made recommendations most observers consider minimal

It said local government has an obligation to consult with neighborhood groups on all policy initiatives and changes affecting the neighborhood environment. In other words both elected politicians and appointed officials "should recognize that there is a legitimate role for the citizen to play other than the ballot box."

On the other hand the study cautioned neighborhood groups to recognize that city council "has the final decision-making authority on all political issues, and that the groups function in an advisory capacity to local government."

'People Power' A Big Challenge, p. 2.

That doesn't come close to satisfying citizen leaders like Colin Vaughan, a Toronto architect prominent in the battle to stop the Spadina Expressway. He wants local decisions to be made at the ward council level. He would have the city merely set the over-all requirements. The local councils would then decide how to carry them out.

"Citizen participation doesn't mean allowing people to make speeches before council," says Toronto alderman John Sewell. "It means that the people make the decisions themselves."

The young alderman tries to live up to his rhetoric by carrying every issue back to his own ward council before city council votes. "Their (his electors) job is to make sure I don't sell out (to the establishment at City Hall.) They keep hitting me," he says proudly.

Sewell admits he has a problem getting as many people as he would like involved in the desision-making process. He believes that "the more people you get involved the better the decision."

The Bureau of Municipal Research reported that "although interest in local government is extremely low, interest in the role of the neighborhood is even lower."

One of Sewell's answers is that the city should subsidize the local groups so that they can hire professional organizers. (Saul Alinsky, the American apostle of people power, says full-time, paid organizers are essential.) The Bureau, however, recommended against a city subsidy on the grounds that it would sacrifice the political autonomy of the neighborhood groups.

Getting the neighborhood involved is a major problem not only for citizens' groups across the country but for public authorities administering programs such as urban renewal, where the necessity of citizen participation has at last been realized.

Montreal Housing Director Guy Legault says that in the Quesnel-Coursol block of the Little Burgundy renewal scheme only 74 of the more than 600 residential adults took part in local committee elections. "The five-member committee has as much difficulty as we do in getting the local consensus," he told me.

Peter Burns, Ottawa's director of community renewal, complains that the Lower Town East project has gone through almost three citizens' committees. The problem is finding 20 persons who can truly represent a population of 9,000.

Questions to think about:

1. What is meant by "people power"?

2. Politicians "should recognize that there is a legitimate role for the citizen to play other than the ballot box." Do you agree or disagree with this statement. Explain.
3. What is meant by citizen participation? Should you make it your business? Why?
4. Why do you think that there is little citizen participation activity in Edmonton?
5. Why should I bother keeping myself informed?
6. How can people make their desires felt?

TEACHER'S PLAN TO WRITING LETTERS TO YOUR MAYOR

Canada is known as a nation of "joiners". People are frequently members of a large number and variey of groups, many of them purely social. Some groups are business and professional organizations; others are frankly political; and still others fall into additional categories. Population increases and technological advances have created a much larger, far more complex society than existed at the time of Confederation. This society apparently requires a proportionately complex government, a government the individual citizen finds increasingly difficult to influence, affect, or shape. The individual therefore forms, joins, and supports groups designed to give his views a more articulate, broadened amplified hearing.

In today's lesson we will attempt to teach this concept by using 2 letters written by children to their mayor. These letters are generally filled with the innocence, optimism, and sincerity of childhood. They are often humorous, sometimes deeply moving, and on rare occasions beautifully imbued with the essential spirit of democracy. Although the 2 letters chosen for this lesson were assuredly written with conviction, their effectiveness as means of influencing a major decision-maker could be questioned.

Have the students read the two letters and then carefully consider the 6 questions that follow and write answers to them.

Discuss the answers to the 6 questions with the class.

Ask the class if they can think of any ways that people make their views known to those in government? (e.g., demonstration, voting, telegrams, letters, petitions,

For the next 3 weeks have the class look for newspaper items that deal with ways people make their views known to those in government. Provide bulletin board space that students can display these items for the next 3 weeks. Encourage the students to read the news items.

WRITING LETTERS TO YOUR MAYOR

Politicians and other government officials receive letters every day from children and adults. The two letters that follow are examples of letters that children like you write to their mayor.

Dear Mr. Mayor,

I would like permission to have a tractor to knock down 11 trees. The reason we want them knocked down is for a baseball field across the street from my house.

If this is permitted we boys will be very grateful.

Thank you
Sincerely
Tom Jones

Dear Mayor,

I want to stop all wars but I can't because I'm too little. I'm 12 years old. I don't like wars. I think its stupid and nobody can make me change my mind. And if you can I want you to write to me a letter and tell me what you think of wars.

Your friend
David Quack

1. Do you think these letters were written with conviction? Explain.

2. Would you write this kind of letter? Why?

3. Have you ever written a letter to a politician? If so, tell us about it?

4. Do you think that these letters would be effective in influencing the mayor? Why?

5. Do you know of a city problem that is important enough to do something about?

6. What can you do about it?

TEACHER'S PLAN FOR JOYCE LEARNS TO BE PRESIDENT

1. Introducing the Story

Electing a class president is a routine operation in many schools. The students who assume positions of leadership after being elected to class offices sometimes do not know how to exercise their offices. Since the democratic process is not easy to learn, elected student leaders sometimes become dictatorial about matters which significantly affect all members of the group. Thus they deny group members the right and the privelege of participating in decision making. This story is about a girl who was elected class president. She had to learn her responsibilities as a leader the hard way.

Before reading the story, have students look up the following words in the dictionary: dictator, intend, social, enemies, president, apologize.

2. Reading the story

As students begin to read the story, the teacher might ask them to think about why Joyce wanted to be president and what values she sought. When students have read the story, they will probably conclude that she sought power in order to gain respect. Direct students to answer the four questions following the story after they have finished reading the story.

3. Class Discussion

Class discussion could be guided to develop the point that elected leaders must assume responsibility for promoting value sharing in all projects of interest to the group. The most obvious value to be shared by a leader is power, but democratic leadership will eventually involve sharing in all value categories.

Qualifications for office might become the subject of further discussion. Should persons be elected to office merely because they are likable or popular? In considering qualifications, do we always think about how a potential leader will exercise the obligations of office? Relate this to civic government. Ask, if you were able to vote in a city election, what would you look for in the person you voted for? This question leads to another important point - what kind of program of action should be expected of a leader? The leader may be a nice person but does he really stand for the things favored by the people who elected him? Can he be expected to involve group members in making decision-important to them? The second generalization which the teacher may wish to make is that a leader should be elected on the basis of his qualifications for leadership - on the basis of merit.

Conclude the lesson by discussing the four questions that the students wrote answers to.

JOYCE LEARNS TO BE PRESIDENT

"Thanks, Lynda. I never would have made it without your help," Joyce told me. "Your posters and signs did it!"

It had just been announced that Joyce had been elected president of our class. She was going down the hall thanking all of her friends. And it seemed that nearly everyone in school was Joyce's friend. She was pretty, jolly, and very likable. She had a lot of good ideas and was always doing things for other people. She enjoyed being a leader. Everyone seemed to be proud that she had been elected president of our sixth grade class.

At first Joyce had everything her own way. She told everyone what to do. Letting Joyce do the thinking seemed to be the easiest thing for the rest of the class. But we soon learned that this was a mistake. When we had our Halloween party, Joyce planned everything. She chose the committee members, the games, and even the refreshments.

Pretty soon there was some grumbling. After all, maybe some of the rest of us might have a good idea or two. But it was not until our Valentine party was coming up that the trouble started. Joyce began the planning meeting as usual.

"Let's come to order while I tell you about our party," she began. "Now I've decided that our party will be held in the cafeteria."

Big Ed Ryan jumped up. "Don't we have anything to say about it? he asked.

There was a short silence. We looked at one another, and Joyce turned pale. We could see that she was embarrassed and angry. She looked like someone had slapped her face.

"I'm your president," she flared. "You elected me to run this class, and that's just what I intend to do. We will . . ."

"Yeah!" Ed shot back. "but doesn't anyone else have any say? I'd rather have it in someone's home." Several others murmured agreement.

"Joyce," I cut in, "maybe you should get some ideas from the class before you decide."

Joyce was about to answer hotly when Miss Goodwin, our teacher, spoke up. "May I interrupt?" she asked quietly. "Joyce, your classmates have a point. Perhaps all of us should think about what we'd like to do and then discuss it further tomorrow."

It was pretty sticky the rest of the day. Joyce went about defending her actions and making enemies.

The next morning someone had put up a poster in our room which read: DICTATOER JOYCE. Dictator was mispelled, but everyone got the idea

Joyce saw it when she came in, and she ran out of the room.

When Miss Goodwin came in, she quickly took the poster down. Holding it in her hands she said, "I'm ashamed of whoever did this!" She then turned and left the room. We were pretty quiet while she was gone.

"Joyce has gone home ill," Miss Goodwin said when she returned.

Next morning Joyce was back. We were surprised to see her so cheerful. When it came time for her to take charge, she walked to the front of the room.

But before she could say anything, Ed Ryan stood up and announced, "Before the meeting starts, I want to apologize for putting up that sign yesterday."

Joyce laughed and said, "That's all right, Ed. I think it was something I needed." Joyce laughed again and the rest of us did, too.

"Before we discuss the party," Joyce said, "Iwant to tell you something. Until you elected me, I had never been president of any group. I really thought the president had to do everything. I've learned the hard way that the president should get ideas from everyone and then decide what is good for the majority. That makes a democratic class."

Joyce paused for a moment, smiled at the class, and then continued: "Since we are now living in a democracy again, let's get busy and decide what we want to do for our party."

We got down to business pretty fast and soon had everything planned. We decided to have refreshments in the cafeteria first and then go to Joyce's home to play games. Everyone was happy about the plans, but they were even happier that Joyce had learned how to be a good president.

1. Why did Joyce want to be president?

2. Why do you think that people who are elected to government, such as Aldermen, want the position?

Are there other reasons?

3. What do you think would happen if an elected representative of the people, such as an Alderman, did what Joyce did in the first part of the story?

4. Do you think that elected representatives of the people, such as Aldermen, have responsibilities to the people who elect them?

If so, what are their responsibilities?

If not, why not?

TEACHERS PLAN FOR THEY'RE PUTTING US OFF THE MAP

In contrast to "City Under Pressure", the film "They're Putting Us Off The Map" is the diagnosis of a shrinking town, Napanee, Ontario.

"They're Putting Us Off The Map" is a 28 minute color 16 mm film produced by The National Film Board of Canada.

Napanee, Ontario, pleasantly situated near Lake Ontario and channels of the St. Lawrence, would seem to be a town with much in its favour for growth and expansion. Yet the population is dwindling: young people, finding no reason to stay, drift to the larger centers for better opportunities; new industries seem to locate elsewhere; old industries find it difficult to survive.

The people you will see in this film are not actors but are civic leaders and townspeople expressing their views as to the reasons for the lack of progress and development. They are unanimous in their affection for the hometown, where life is good in all seasons. Young people would like to stay if only the town had something more promising to offer for the future. But more and more often the auctioneer's hammer sounds 'finis' to a lifetime spent trying to make a go of it.

This film, by documenting the economic situation in Napanee, provides a good basis for discussion and should assist students to realize some of the problems associated with regional economic development. The film does not attempt to provide solutions. It is basically an instrument to stimulate thought and discussion concerning problems related to the whole question of social economic development at the community level.

Before viewing the film the students should be aware of the topic that the film deals with . They should also be aware that Napanee is characteristic of many small rural communities. Before the film write the following 2 questions on the board and direct students to look for answers to these 2 questions during the viewing of the film: (1) Why are the people moving out of Napanee? - Why is the town dying out? (2) Compare with Edmonton and the film you saw yesterday. Why the difference?

Following the viewing of the film, discuss the above 2 questions.

Additional topics for class discussion:

1. Compare recreational facilities in the two cities. Would Napanee consider building an Omniplex? Why?

2. Compare the role of City Council in Napanee and Edmonton. What issues would they be concerned with?

3. Napanee has fewer people than Edmonton. Why?

4. Are you familiar with other areas in Canada that people are leaving (e.g., wheat farms of Saskatchewan)? Why are they leaving?

5. Why is there the emphasis on locating industry in Napanee?

6. Why are young people leaving Napanee?

7. In which city would you prefer to live?

8. Compare the problems of urban renewal, traffic congestion, and pollution in Napanee and Edmonton.

9. In which of the two cities would the average citizen have the best opportunity to influence city hall? Why?

TEACHER'S PLAN FOR CITY UNDER PRESSURE

"City Under Pressure, A Municipal Government: A Case Study" is a 17 minute black and white 16 mm film produced by the National Film Board of Canada.

The "Case Study in Municipal Government" presented in this film is that of Edmonton. In presenting this approach to learning about civic government, the film is designed to engage the interest of students in the affairs of their own city.

What the film does is to listen in on views about current issues in Edmonton expressed by local citizens, the mayor, aldermen, and others concerned with civic government. There is often conflict of interest and motive, but it is up to the student to evaluate evidence and opinion and to formulate practical solutions. To help him do so the film shows pertinent aspects of several problems confronting the civic government of Edmonton.

The questions raised clearly illustrate the ramifications of city administraion and the need for elected representatives to look beyond the expeniency of the moment to the long-range good of the city.

This film vividly depicts the influence of citizens acting as a group. The problems that are shown are public housing, urban renewal, parklands and recreational facilities, and rapid transit. These issues affect the everyday lives of the people of Edmonton. In the final analysis it is the citizens of Edmonton who must take a stand. In preparation for seeing this excellent film develop this mental set with the students.

Suggested class discussion following the viewing of the film:

1. What are some of the problems facing the people in city government?
   Do you think that Edmonton is the only city under pressure? Explain.

2. What is meant by urban renewal? Relate this concept to public housing.

3. How can individual citizens be involved and effective in decision-making at the civic government level?

4. How do people in civic government take the case to the people?

5. How is the City of Edmonton "under pressure" today?
   Relate to specific issues, e.g., pollution, traffic congestion. What can be done about it?

6. How do you feel about these issues?

7. What are the benefits and costs of being a large growth center such as Edmonton?

8. How can we build a better Edmonton?

TEACHER'S PLAN FOR GOVERNMENT IN STOERPENBERG CAMP

During the next two days the students will investigate 3 parts of the political system set up by the prisoners at Stoerpenberg Camp. On the first day they will study the leaders of the political system to find out their backgrounds and their character traits. The second day they will investigate the process of making political decisions in the camp and the role of individuals in this society.

Thus through reading, "Government in Stoerpenberg Camp" students seek to answer 3 groups of questions about our political system. They are:
1. Who are the political leaders? What are their attributes? How are they recruited? How do they gain and maintain support?
2. How are decisions made in the political system?
3. What is the role of the individual citizen in the political system? How can he gain access to his leaders?

Direct students to read the story and then to think about and to write answers on a separate piece of paper to the questions that follow the story. Some students may find that some of the concepts will give them trouble. You may wish to explain through lecture or discussion, with or without the students using dictionaries, before the reading, such concepts as: society, government, political system, election, campaigning, campaign speeches, council, and referendum.

Attempt throughout the discussion to relate and to compare the situation in the story to how it is done in civic government in Canada. Use the students' questions as a guide in leading class discussion. Use pages 1 & 2 for the first day and pages 3 to 5 for the second day. On the second day give particular emphasis to the finaldiscussion question (#8). Suggested time = 20 minutes for the students to read and think about answers to the questions and 40 minutes for class discussion.

GOVERNMENT IN STOERPENBERG CAMP

Every society has some form of government. Governments develop naturally wherever people live in groups. They have a number of functions. They settle conflicts that arise among people. They provide services to the community, such as protection from fires. Such services individuals cannot provide for themselves. They also protect a nation from its enemies. All of us can think of a number of additional things that government does.

What should be the proper function of government and what should be left to the individual? This question has always concerned man. As society becomes more complex, the activities of government seem to grow. Traffic laws, once few in number are now numerous. But the main question is still the same: How much of life should government control?

The following story describes the political system in a World War II prisoner of war camp in Stoerpenberg, Germany. Read it and then think about the answers to the questions that follow it.

LEADERSHIP IN STOERPENBERG CAMP

There were a hundred and sixty of them. They had been counted by the Germans and the count had been checked. They moved about the building looking out the windows at the dull winter landscape. They sat around the tables. Now and then some would lie down on a bunk, hands under their head, staring at the ceiling. One hundred and sixty American prisoners of war, who had been captured in the Battle of the Bulge two months ago, were now organized as a prisoner of war labor unit at Stoerpenberg, somewhere in western Germany.

During the first two days they had nothing to do but lie on their beds and wait to be fed. As men went from bunk to bunk, they began to talk about their situation. They found out that they were all privates who had been in combat units of one kind or another. There were men in their group from every section of the United States. Some of the men who had been able to talk to the guards had discovered that the camp was at the edge of a large town. The prisoners were to be used as laborers in the fields and for general work about the town.

The prisoners were housed in a gymnasium that had been part of a group of factory buildings. It evidently had been used as a workers' recreation center. At one end of the building a few tumbling mats were all that remained of the buildings former equipment. An aisle formed by two rows of tables ran down the center of the building. Behind the tables, on each side, were rows of double-decked bunks. On the outside of the building lay a long narrow plot of ground used as an exercise yard for the prisoners. Within the building and the exercise yard the American prisoners formed a little society of their own.

By the second day the men had picked out bunks and taken regular places at the tables. There were ten tables, so sixteen men were grouped at each. Men who had known each other before they were captured tended to cluster together. None of the men could have known anyone else in the group for more than two months. A few men who had not yet made friends tended to drift to the table closest to their bunk.

On the third day the German officer in charge told the prisoners to choose a group leader. This leader would pass on to the group the regulations and orders of the German officers. He would also be responsibl

for carrying out rules for health and sanitation made by the prisoners.

After the interpreter told the prisoners this, they began to discuss the matter among themselves. They were seated around the tables where there was enough space for two or three of them to get together. They decided to hold an election. Soon men began to move from table to table campaigning for their favorite. Finally a few men were selected as candidates. Votes were taken by a show of hands. If a candidate seemed to have a fairly large number of people behind him he was considered in the running and if not his name was dropped. The choice soon narrowed down to a few men. Campaign speeches were made in favor of each man. After the speeches were finished, a final vote was taken by a show of hands. The choice was George Kent, a man of good physical appearance. A college graduate, Kent had at one time been a sergeant, and had distinguished himself in battle.

Kent immediately brought up the most important matter of how food was to be distributed. In a prisoner of war camp food is the subject most constantly on every prisoner's mind. Kent suggested that the entire ration of food should be divided into ten parts, one for each table, and then distributed at the tables to the men. In order to supervise this final distribution of food, he suggested that each table elect a table leader to take charge. Gathered around the tables, the men talked and finally chose their representative. The men who were finally chosen as leaders had a few characteristics in common. Several were college graduates and the rest had finished high school. A number of them had acted as officers at one time or another. Every one of them was a good talker who could communicate well his fellows.

Shortly after the table leaders were chosen, several of these leaders suggested to Kent that they set up a council to govern the group. Kent agreed. In the following weeks the council met regularly. It consisted of Kent and the ten table leaders. At each meeting Kent passed on orders and information from the Germans so that the table leaders could inform the men in their group. The members of the council also discussed living arrangements, such as the choice of bunks.

If a man felt he had a "gripe" he complained to his table leader. If the table leader was unable to settle the matter on the spot, he would bring it before the council at the next meeting. Most problems brought up in this way were settled at the council, but when a new problem seemed to be extra important, it was referred to the tables for discussion and a referendum. Through this procedure the men were able to make rules by which they could govern themselves.

Questions -

1. How did the 160 American prisoners decide who their leader would be? Compare this with the way that leaders for Canadian government are chosen.
2. What were the leaders like? What were their backgrounds and their most important character traits? Compare these with the personal characteristics of Canadian political leaders.
3. How were the leaders different from those they lead? Compare this to Canada.
4. How did the leaders and those who elected them communicate with each other. Compare this to Canada.
5. How were the laws made and carried out? Compare to Canada.

Today we will deal with the way in which political decisions were made in Stoerpenberg Camp. To make these decisions, the prisioners set up simple political institutions, as our reading yesterday revealed. They had a leader, ten table leaders organized as a council, and 160 voters. The leader and table leaders passed laws, subject to referendum by the voters, and carried out laws.

The following story describes decision-making in Stoerpenberg Camp. Read it and then think about the answers to the questions that follow it.

DECISION-MAKING IN STOERPENBERG CAMP

In a few weeks the camp was running very smoothly. Everyones routine had been worked out. Each man had certain duties to perform. There was a code for the group. The code was not written down and yet everyone knew what it was and lived by it.

The first and most important rule of this informal code was that noone whould steal from another. Especially he would not steal food. There were a few other important parts of the code. Everyone was expected to keep as clean as possible.

Two weeks after the 160 prisoners had been placed together in the gymnasium at Stoerpenberg, they had developed a small but complete society. They had organized a government, they had made some laws, and they had accepted an informal code which everyone obeyed.

In the third week of March, 1945, as a result of an incident among the men at Table Five, the leaders of the work unit suddenly found themselves with a difficult problem. One of the men at the table was accused of stealing food and the uproar over it threatened to break up the society. One of the members of Table Five was a man named Court. From the very first, Ainslee, the table leader of Table Five, had been aware that Court did not fit into any of the informal groups at the table. Court didn't seem to have friends at any of the tables.

Court was one of the few men who did not participate in the life of the group. His only interest was food. Soon he began to save the bread from his daily rations. Each day he added another chunk to his collection. He hid chunks of bread in his clothing and bunk. Court was very suspicious of the other men. He spent much of his time carefully checking his collection of bread chunks. Noone saw him eat any of it. By the middle of March much of the bread he had saved was very stale. He was constantly seen handling it. Handling the bread seemed to give him satisfaction.

Bartrum, a tall, heavy man from Table Five, had watched Court very carefully. He asked others why Court was doing it. Because food was so scarce, some felt that it was wrong for one man to waste bread that could be eaten by others.

Each evening the men of the work unit stood in the aisle to be counted by one of the German officers. Late in March Bartrum was late. Immediately after the men were dismissed, Bartrum returned to his bunk. A short time later the men around Table Five were startled by hoarse cries. Court was charging around and around his bunk, scratching here and there. He was moaning and groaning and crying. Ainslee and several others moved

quickly over to Court to find out how much of his hoard of bread had been stolen. In a few minutes a large crowd had collected around Court's bunk. The news of his loss passed quickly among them. Several began to comment on the fact that Bartrum had been late to head count. The men began to suspect that he was the thief.

Ainslee decided to go to Kent to organize a search. Meanwhile a few of the men walked over to Bartrum's bunk and began looking around. Suddenly one of the men found a chunk of bread tucked away at one end of the bunk. Bartrum protested. Several men started shouting and striking at Bartrum. Soon more and more men joined the ruckus. The room was filled with uproar. Soon every man in the room was involved.

Kent, the group leader, quickly realized that if he did not act immediately Bartrum might be killed. Throwing himself into the crowd, he fought his way to Bartrum. Seizing him by the collar, Kent managed to get on top of a table where he could be seen above the mob. He held firmly onto Bartrum. As the men realized it was Kent they became more quiet. "Okay," he yelled, "This isn't the way to do it!" Howls of protest greeted his statement but Kent kept on talking. He argued that Bartrum must be given a fair trial. Slowly the protests began to lessen. As the crowd became quieter, Kent felt that the immediate danger was over. Calling to the table leaders to come with him, he jumped down from the table. Holding tightly to Bartrum he pushed his way through the men. They let him pass. The leaders walked with Kent and Bartrum to the end of the room. Here on the old tumbling mats they sat down to consider what they should do.

At the trial Kent asked most of the questions. Bartrum began by denying the theft but soon admitted his guilt. He said that the bread was being wasted and should do someone some good. He surprised the council by saying that he was ready to accept any punishment they decided upon.

The council soon passed sentence on Bartrum. First, they placed him in isolation for a month. No one was to speak to him or have anything to do with him at all. Second, during this same month Bartrum was given two hours of extra work each night. Finally, he was to give from his own bread ration an amount equal to the bread he had stolen.

After passing the sentence, the table leaders returned to their tables and consulted their men. Most of the men seemed satisfied. Only a few felt that the sentence was too light. Each table voted to accept the decision. Then the leaders returned to Kent and told him of the results.

During the following two weeks, Bartrum was cut off from the other men. No one spoke to him. Each evening he put in his two hours of extra work. Each day he gave his part of the bread ration to Court who either ate it or hid it away with the rest of his chunks. By refusing to have anything to do with Bartrum, every member of the group helped to enforce the rest of the sentence.

Two weeks after the sentence began, the gymnasium was hit by a bomb during an Allied air attack. The Germans placed the prisoners into small groups and sent them to a number of other work camps. The society which they formed came to an end. Most of the prisoners never saw each other again.

Government in Stoerpenberg Camp, p. 3.

Questions -

1. Who decided whether or not a suggestion was worth discussing?

2. How were laws made?

3. How were laws carried out?

4. What happened when a man broke the unwritten code?
What role did Kent play in this incident?
What did it show about who really had power in the society?

5. Do you have an unwritten code? - things that you know you do or don't do, even though this law has never been written down?
For example, what would your unwritten school code be?

6. How important was political activity to the lives of the Stoerpenberg prisoners?

7. How did the prisoners get information about political matters?
Is it as easy to get this information in our society? Why?

8. Do you think that it is possible for the citizens in Edmonton to have as much say in what the government does as the prisoners in Stoerpenberg Camp did? Why or why not?

TEACHER'S PLAN FOR VALUE SHEETS 1 & 2

There are many things in our complex world that are worth getting clearer about, and the value sheet offers a strategy for bringing some of these to the attention of students in a non-threatening and stimulating way. Each student is faced with the issue and its alternatives; and each one is encouraged to make an intelligent choice freely and thoughtfully and to act in ways consistent with that choice.

A value sheet in its simplest form consists of a provocative statement and a series of questions duplicated on a sheet of paper and distributed to class members. The purpose of the provocative statement is to raise an issue that the teacher thinks may have value implication for the students. And the purpose of the questions is to carry each student through the value clarifying process with that issue. Since valuing is an individual matter, each student completes the value sheet by himself, by writing answers on a separate sheet of paper. Later that writing is shared with the other students and used as a basis for large or small group discussions.

These two value sheets are to be used for individual class work. The important consideration in the use of value sheets is that each student has an opportunity to grapple with the questions before getting involved in any discussion that might tempt him to avoid thinking for himself and listen passively to others. Once each student has done some independent judging and thinking, a discussion is useful.

Suggested time - (1) Value Sheet # 1

- (A) Individual Work - 15 minutes
- (B) Class Discussion - 15 minutes

(2) Value Sheet # 2

- (A) Individual Work - 15 minutes
- (B) Class Discussion - 15 minutes

VALUE SHEET # 1

HOME OF THE BRAVE?

I used to be an idealist. When there was a picket line, I would picket. When there was a sitdown, I would sit. When there was a demonstration, I would demonstrate. I sat for two days in front of a store that wouldn't hire "minority type" people. I felt that they should have a fair chance in the land of opportunity, that all men are created equal. They told me to go to Russia. I was born in Toronto!

Then there was the time I marched around the Legislative Buildings and handed out leaflets saying that we shouldn't use bombs to kill each other and that man should study war no more. They called me an atheist!

Once I was arrested for going into a school with a sign saying that all children are entitled to an equal opportunity to education, like the Bill of Rights says. They called me a Communist!

Soon I got tired of being called all these names, so I gave up. I don't care if half of them starve. I don't care if they don't all get educated. I don't care if they kill each other with bombs and guns. I don't care if their babies die from radiation. Now I'm a good Canadian.

To think on and to write on:

1. What is this writer for and what is he against?

2. Have you had any experiences like his?

3. Who are some people who should be concerned about the problems he mentions?

What can they do?

4. Are there any things which YOU are working to change, to set right, to improve? Discuss briefly.

5. Thomas Henry Huxley pointed out that the great end of life is not knowledge but action. What do you think he meant?

6. Have you ever zeroed in on a problem and asked the question, "What can I do about it?"

If you have tell us about it. If you haven't tell us how you might "do your thing" about some problem you feel exists in society.

[illegible] SHEET # 1

IN GERMANY THEY FIRST CAME FOR THE COMMUNISTS

"In Germany they first came for the Communists, and I didn't speak up because I wasn't a Communist. Then they came for the Jews, and I didn't speak up because I wasn't a Jew. Then they came for the trade unionists, and I didn't speak up because I wasn't a trade unionist. Then they came for the Catholics, and I didn't speak up because I was a Protestant. Then they came for me - and by that time no one was left to speak up." -- Pastor Martin Niemoeller

1. In a few words, what is the central meaning of this statement?

2. What is the Pastor for and what is he against?

3. Which category are you in?

When would they have come for you?

4. What are some things going on in our world right now about which you might need to speak up? List them here.

5. How do you think one goes about speaking up? How do you do it?

6. Could you pick something you listed in #4 above and work out a strategy by which you could, indeed, speak up for it?

7. Is there something in your school, some "injustice", about which you could well speak up?

8. If you are not to speak up, who should do it?

9. Why stick out your neck?

Why not?

10. We need to value what we do and to do something about what we value. Do you agree?

If you agree, when was the last time you acted upon [illegible]

ANGRY FARMERS HIT LEGISLATURE

reprinted in part from The Edmonton Journal
April 1, 1970.

The chanting, singing farmers pushed to within feet of the main legislative chamber doors in the largest demonstration seen in the building.

With shouts of "We want Strom" and the flapping of chickens loose in the building rotunda, the farmers at one point threatened to disrupt the afternoon sitting of the legislature in their press to see the premier and MLAs.

That threat ended when Premier Strom met with demonstration leaders - officials at the National Farmers' Union - and said he would "pass the meseage along to MLAs at the 5:30 p.m. adjournment time that the farmers would like to talk to them.

As the session adjourned Premier Strom stood at the top of the legislative building main stairway surrounded by RCMP plainclothes men as NFU president Roy Atkinson listed the farmers' complaints.

The premier asked that he be sent a copy of the organization's constitution, then received a loud "No!" from the farmers when he asked for the number of members in the organization.

"We're not prepared to divulge to anyone the number of our membership, who they are or where they are," Mr. Atkinson said. "General Motors doesn't divulge to the public all its internal information."

The premier said he wasn't insisting, it was just that nearly without exception, organizations making representation to the government are only too happy to provide the size of their membership.

Then the farmers disbanded as quietly as they had formed two hours earlier, leaving only two chickens and two bags of broken eggs on the rotunda floor. One NFU official thanked the farmers - mostly from the northern Alberta area, said Dr. Hugh Horner, the Conservative MLA for Lac Ste. Anne - for not tossing any eggs.

The group gathered on the outside legislative building steps, about 4 p.m., and after a meeting between march leaders and government officials the farmers pushed their way past commissioners and guides into the legislative building rotunda.

A department of agriculture official said the leaders would not discuss any points, they wanted a confrontation with the premier and all the MLAs.

The farmers moved up the main stairway to within feet of the locked legislative chamber doors, chanting "We want Strom" and singing Solidarity Forever.

"Strom's coming out. That's a promise. If he isn't, we'll go in," Mr. Eglinski told the farmers, who by this time had filled the rotunda below.

PROTEST NO SOLUTION --- BABEY

reprinted in part from The Edmonton Journal
April 1, 1970.

Paul Babey, president of Unifarm, says the remedy to agricultural problems "is not through protesting."

"In the future, however, the solution to the agricultural dilemma is promoting and developing new markets not relying on government handouts."

CHECK THIS PROTEST OUT . . . reprinted in part from The Edmonton Journal
April 24, 1970.

Men and women fighting pollution tied up check-out counters at a supermarket for 20 minutes Thursday by placing large orders - and then refusing to pay for them.

The demonstrators belong to STOP, which stands for Save Tomorrow - Oppose Pollution.

Here's what they did:

A cashier rang up a $15 order. But the customer refused to pay unless the large box of detergent in her order was replaced with a brand with a lower phosphate content.

The customer left the store, her groceries piled on the counter.

While manager Ben Marchak was telling the first cashier to put the order in the basket and send it to the store's backroom, the next cashier faced the same problem.

She exclaimed: "I've got another one. What should I do Mr. March

Only after it happened twice each to the five cashiers did the store realize it was a planned protest.

Questions:

1. Describe the farmers protest.

Is this the best way to influence your elected representative? Why?

Can you suggest alternatives?

2. Describe the STOP protest.

Is this the best way to "make your point" or "do your thing"? Why?

Can you suggest alternatives?

3. Is there some issue you could speak out on? What is it?

What can you do about it?

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT IN FAVOUR OF [illegible]

We [illegible] that we should endeavour to provide this facility for the City. I am also of the opinion that this multi-use facility be located in downtown Edmonton.

The most important element which enters into the development is that of financing. The people have already indicated their desire for such a facility provided that it would not cost more than two mills to finance and operate over a period of years.

Developers are giving us to understand that this can be done, even at the increasing interest rates which are prevailing at the present time. I do not believe the attempt on the part of the Federal Government to slow down developments plays a role in this connection, in that I think that under the most favourable circumstances the program will not be under way for another year or more. By that time the economy should have cooled off enough to make developments of this kind desirable.

In short, I would like to see an Omniplex developed in the City for multiplicity of uses and with as little expense to the Tax Payer as possible.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION [illegible]

Those who favour the omniplex argue that it will benefit the City as a whole by providing accommodation for first class, outstanding sports events that would otherwise not be held in Edmonton, or at the very least that they be held in more comfortable surroundings than is now possible bearing in mind our present sporting facilities and our harsh climate.

In addition to the sporting facilities provided by an omniplex, of course, would be such things as a trade and convention centre and the argument runs that by combining these facilities in one building money will be saved.

There is the further argument that such a building will be an architectural and cultural asset to the City of Edmonton whose benefits cannot be measured in mere money.

Those who oppose the omniplex argue that the money that would be spent on

on it should be spent on [illegible] in recreational facilities throughout the City. It is also held that the omniplex would tend to benefit only a small section of the population, that is, the promoters of professional sports, the fans of these sports, business men meeting in convention from other parts of Canada and so on. The argument is that by spending money on neighborhood recreational facilities more ordinary Edmontonians will benefit, especially the youngsters who cannot be said at the moment to be adequately served by such facilities.

My personal view accords with the latter, that is, the "opposition" point of view. But, further, I regard it as my duty to carry out the wishes of the majority of Edmontonians and it was apparent when an opinion was asked of the voters that a majority was in favour of omniplex. One final point. No legal plebiscite has been held on the question and if one were held today there is no saying what the outcome would be.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON RAPID TRANSIT

Trains are expensive and railway right of way and track is costly and inflexible. This method of transport is therefore a cheaper method of carrying people only when there are large numbers using it.

People prefer cars to public transport but will use buses or trains when it is convenient, cheaper, or when the use of the car is even more inconvenient than public transport and the expense is out of proportion.

Most people will use public transport when it is convenient - i.e. no transfer service, frequent service, service to a reasonable distance from their home and office, etc.

Public transport can be subsidized from the public purse to provid reasonable transportation to lower income groups - to everyone if by relieving the necessity of building expensive throughways and parking garages it actually makes good economic sense.

The present City of Edmonton plans for Rapid Transit do not make sense on any of the above criteria.

Everyone would be delevered too far from where they want to go or would have to transfer at least once and likely twice instead of having through one bus service. Not one highway that is being planned will be stopp if we put in this plan nor will it stop the demand for any planned parking.

Present demand for public transport is easily met by buses and a great increase can be handled most cheaply by more of the same with routing more buses along 100 Avenue and 102 Avenue along with creation of special bus lanes and one way streets - giving a more flexible system, better service and nowhere near the capital investment.

A rapid transit system, underground along Jasper Avenue, would be more useful but so expensive the city would need many more people and concentrated in more dense groups (high rise apartment areas rather than single family residence) before it would come close to being economical. That day is a long way off for Edmonton.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON RAPID TRANSIT

Studies have shown that rapid transit is the most economical method yet devised to move people. It seems reasonable therefore to plan for rapid transit in Edmonton even though it is somewhat unusual to provide rapid transit at our level of population.

On the surface it also seems reasonable to assume that substantial savings can be effected by utilizing present railroad right away.

It then becomes a question of judgement. It is necessary to equate the alternatives some of which are:

1. Less patronage, smaller cost of CNR right of way and station
2. Greater patronage, greater cost, underground down Jasper Avenue
3. Savings, if any or additional land and construction cost postponement,

or 4. Traffic problem at university and rapid growth in that area

I am in agreement with council's decision to undertake a feasibility study of the various alternatives.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON PARKS AND RECREATION

My position on parks and recreation is that I approve of what is being done. I am proud of the developments of Whitemud and Windsor Park and not of the opinion that the Parks Department is particularly inefficient although I am sure that it is possible to criticize any organization. I would prefer to spend money on local swimming pools, hockey arenas, tennis courts, and recreational facilities in preference to Omniplex. I think as an alderman I would like to push participating sports rather than speculating sports.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON PARKS AND RECREATION

The river valley should be kept in its natural state.

There should be fewer "ornamental parks" and more parks of a functional nature. I detest "concrete jungles".

We should have more and better recreational facilities, especially skating rinks and swimming pools. However, it is important to make more effecient and effective use of the ones we now have and the ones we will have in the future.

We need less theoretical hogwash by pseudo-psychologists and more recreation guidance for people. Too many recreation people are trying to be therapists instead of administrators and motivators.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON ZONING

I have only one pet peeve and that is wall to wall walk ups or cheap duplexes. Any and all zoning in any city should take into consideration the total city picture.

I am not an expert on zoning but from an over-all point of view I prefer one major downtown core with minor shopping or town centers spread throughout the city. The reason for this being that I feel residential areas should be just that and not a mixture of commercial and residential.

The river valley should be left in its natural state. Properly placed and developed high rises should be relatively close to commercial areas as the majority of people in high rises are childless and business oriented.

Industry should be away from residential areas and guaranteed not to pollute the environment.

AN EDMONTON'S ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON POLLUTION

Regarding this matter, I would like to indicate that the whole country should make a concerted effort to minimize pollution in a living society. The actual regulations regarding the pollution are within the Federal and Provincial Governments, and thus the cost for this undertaking rests with them - although, as municipalities they may have to pay for anti-pollution measures which have been requested by the Provincial Government to be provided.

In general, I would like to assure you that it is a very difficult, multi-faceted problem - one not easily dealt with. The elimination of pollution is very costly. The prevention altogether of pollution is probably prohibitive for industry, etc. Somewhere in between, a happy medium must be found which will preserve the balance of nature.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON URBAN RENEWAL

Considered in isolation, urban renewal can be a most effective means of improving the environment, particularly accommodation, of a great many citizens. By isolation I mean one city at a time.

However, no one City can be considered in isolation. And when you take the urban renewal requirements of all the cities of Canada, and lump them together as an item of spending, the amount involved would bankrupt this country.

Further, urban renewal is not without adverse sociological effects, especially if the "bulldozer" approach is used.

There is the compromise approach of urban renewal on a small scale, the costs being divided between the government and private developers. This works where there are willing private developers; it does not work where there private developers who do not wish to cooperate. Thus it could be that municipalities crying out for urban renewal get none, even though government money may be available to them.

There is the further compromise "urban rehabilitation". This involves sprucing up or in some measure restoring or repairing property in run-down neighborhoods. It, too, works on a somewhat restricted basis in that some neighborhoods, particularly in older cities, are beyond rehabilitation.

From this cursory statement it will be seen that the implications of urban renewal are wide ranging indeed and it is impossible to give a simple answer to the question of urban renewal.

It can and has worked in many parts of the world, but before it is embarked upon sociological and financial factors must be carefully weighed.

AN EDMONTON ALDERMAN'S STATEMENT OF POSITION ON ANNEXATION

The question of making living space available for more people who want to live in Edmonton can be handled in several ways such as increasing allowable density of land use i.e., letting people build more apartment buildings rather than houses. The City could be made larger by applying to the Provincial Government for another little piece of property each year to take care of the demand as it comes up each year. It can try to acquire a lot of land around the City limits so as to be able to expand developed areas in any direction.

The ability to be able to expand in any direction the City of Edmonton chooses makes the most sense. The City can always allow more apartment buildings as it wishes anyway so people can have more freedom of choice - always a democratic objective. By having lots of area open the City can help direct the growth in an economical way by planning services suc as sewer, water, roads, etc., in the most economical way to build.

One difficulty of expansion now is that private developers bring in applications to the City to develop land they own and sometimes this may mean providing service in a direction or area that puts a heavy financial load on the City. This problem gets more acute where we may have several developers trying to get the City to go in several different ways at once. This problem is really much the same for land in the City as well as being the cause of people trying to bring in bits of lands here and there - but it is more easily controlled if the City has plenty of land within its boundaries available to development.

The question of cost is more important - most important - it is cheaper to provide more living accommodation in Edmonton, when it is properly controlled and planned, than to build satellite towns around and I believe the City can best do so by a large scale annexation, such as advocated by the Hanson report, than by allowing the City to be added to by bits and piece

APPENDIX C

FREQUENCY OF PRE- AND POST-TEST SCORES

Frequency of Scores on Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey for Experimental Subjects on Pre-Test

Scores	Frequencies
12	3
13	4
14	3
15	3
16	8
17	9
18	11
19	13
20	17
21	11
22	11
23	8
24	9
25	11
26	3
27	2
28	2
29	4
30	3
31	3
32	1

Frequency of Scores on Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey for Experimental Subjects on Post-Test.

Scores	Frequencies
9	1
10	1
11	0
12	0
13	3
14	3
15	4
16	10
17	3
18	4
19	9
20	5
21	8
22	10
23	7
24	14
25	7
26	12
27	6
28	7
29	7
30	9
31	1
32	3
33	2
34	1
35	2

Frequency of Scores on Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey for Control Subjects on Pre-Test

Scores	Frequencies
7	1
8	0
9	1
10	0
11	1
12	0
13	1
14	6
15	1
16	10
17	9
18	4
19	13
20	11
21	13
22	6
23	8
24	7
25	12
26	11
27	4
28	4
29	7
30	1
31	1
32	1
33	1
34	1

Frequency of Scores on Efficacy Toward Civic Government Attitude Survey for Control Subjects on Post-Test

Scores	Frequencies
11	1
12	1
13	0
14	1
15	2
16	1
17	7
18	3
19	5
20	9
21	10
22	6
23	6
24	13
25	11
26	10
27	10
28	7
29	12
30	8
31	3
32	2
33	2
34	3
35	2

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